THE

WESTERN JOURNAL

and Civilian.

VOL. XIV. September, 1855. 4.

ARTICLE I.

A Retrospect of the Western Journal & Civilian.

A review of the subjects which have been discussed in the Western Journal, can scarcely be interesting or useful to those who have read it from its commencement, and to that portion of our patrons we feel that an apology is due for adverting to the history of our own labors. But to more recent patrons, we are persuaded that a brief statement of the original plan and objects of the work, and of the manner in which it has been conducted, will be profitable and perhaps interesting.

We had read the history of civilization from the deluge to our own times, had traced the rise, progress and decay of many nations, and arrived at the conclusion that most of the evils by which the human family had been afflicted, sprung from the desire of man to escape from labor and subsist upon the fruits produced by the toil of his fellow-man. Hence, as we conceived, the tyranny involved in almost all the governments which had ever existed; hence the want of justice, confidence and charity on the part of individuals, and hence the reason that the sublime and humanizing doctrines of christianity had made so little progress. Impressed with this view of the past, we contemplated this broad continent, comparatively uninhabited, but destined to contain, at no very remote period, perhaps one third of the human family, and asked what assurance have we that the people of America will escape the evils which have afflicted the old world?

In searching for the answer to this enquiry, we found that our fathers had devised and established a government sufficiently just and liberal in its principles to admit of indefinite advancement towards a higher and better state of civilization; but we perceived, as we imagined, that the present generation, like the unwise off-

spring of a good and munificent parent, were in haste to enjoy their patrimony instead of improving it for the benefit of their posterity; and that unless they and their descendants acted up to the spirit of the institutions bequeathed to them, the history of these United States would afford another instance in proof of the doctrine that man is incapable of self government.

Entertaining these views, we conceived it to be our duty to devote our time and talents to the cause of social improvement—the cause of humanity. And with a view to this end, we entered upon the publication of the Western Journal. In devising the plan, we aimed to make its foundation sufficiently broad to embrace every branch of social and political economy, and of sufficient strength to sustain any additions which might be made to it for centuries.

Our first object was to reconcile man to labor in obedience to the divine injunction, and to this end we endeavored to show that bodily exercise was a physical necessity, and that the application of that exercise to useful purposes was a high moral duty. It was obvious that to make labor pleasing and profitable, it must be associated with a higher degree of intelligence than has ever been enjoyed by the laboring classes of any other country; and hence, we were led to advocate a system of education which should ensure a reasonable degree of instruction to every individual born of our race. The first of these subjects was fully discussed in the first volume, and has since been adverted to upon all proper occasions; and besides our own efforts, the latter has been elaborated and presented in a variety of lights by others who have generously contributed their labors to the advancement of a cause which claims and receives the support of every true philanthropist.

The plan of the Western Journal embracing the entire subject of political economy, much of our labor has been directed to different branches of that science. The elements of wealth, the division of labor, the natural laws of commerce, the artificial agents of exchange—money, credit, banks, industrial corporations, and public improvements—have all claimed and received our consideration. The elements of these several subjects have been carefully investigated, and we have endeavored to form a system adapted to the character, pursuits and social institutions of the American people: a system conforming to the climate, territorial extent and hydrography of our continent, and its geographical relations to other countries.

The investigation of these subjects has necessarily led us into discussions touching the policy of our own State, and of the General Government. Public improvements, banking, the usury laws, homestead exemptions, industrial corporations, limited partnerships, a geological survey, and other subjects of State policy, have been discussed at such times as seemed most proper for their consideration. The improvement of western rivers, the disposition of the public domain, the Pacific railroad, and the protection of American industry, have been frequently discussed; and the merits of these measures examined, irrespective of the opinions of political parties or of distinguished individuals.

Located at the central point of the great basin of the Mississippi, it was natural and reasonable that the interests of this region should claim our first and principal attention; and hence we have continually kept in view the development of its vast resources. We conceived that, through the medium of an extensive foreign commerce, the financial condition of this country was too intimately connected with the state of things abroad; and that our prosperity depended, in too great a degree, upon the commercial operations and industrial pursuits of a people laboring to support a hereditary aristocracy, and the most costly institutions upon earth. To counteract these influences, we have endeavored to show the wisdom of affording reasonable protection to American industry, and of building up and establishing a system of internal commerce whose center shall be in the basin of the Mississippi. Believing that such a system of commerce was necessary not only to develop the resources of the central region, but to secure ts just influence in the councils of the nation, we advocated, as a means of promoting these objects, an extensive system of public improvement, and the disposition of the public domain under a system which would encourage the settlement of the Western States and territories, and compel the general government at an early day to part with its entire claim to lands lying within the States. Indeed so important have we regarded the establishment of a system of internal commerce in the West, that almost every branch of political economy has been discussed with a view to that object. For in the present state of civilization, the arts, manufactures, capital, literature and political power, all cluster around the great commercial centers ; and it should be the policy of the statesman to neutralize the influence of these great centers by encouraging the growth of rivals.

That our readers might be in possession of facts which would enable them to reason for themselves, and prevent them from being mislead by designing politicians and ignorant pretenders, we have carefully collected, arranged and published, from the most authentic sources, a vast amount of statistics relating to every department of industry and to almost every subject that can interest one desiring general and correct information.

Though we regarded agriculture and the mechanic arts as the basis of civilization, we soon discovered that those engaged in these great departments of industry generally preferred papers more exclusively devoted to their respective pursuits; and hence we have given less space to the details connected with their employments. But we did not abandon their interests. Indeed, so dependant are all other interests upon the prosperity of those engaged in these two departments of industry, that it would be difficult to conceive a policy by which any other important interest could be materially and permanently advanced without benefitting these also.

Moreover, we have aimed to make the Western Journal a repository of facts relating to the history of this great central region; and have been attentive to the collection of such matter as will, in our opinion, be useful to the historian and profitable to future generations. In this department, we have received many valuable contributions from individuals who have generously assisted us in rendering our Journal worthy of the age and of the objects for which it was established.

In selecting matter for publication, we have always sought for that which was useful: facts and arguments calculated to enlighten the mind of our readers in respect to subjects in which they were either directly or indirectly interested.

With few exceptions, it was intended to make each leading article a complete treatise on some subject which had not been previously discussed. Some of these are on philosophical and moral topics designed to give a moral direction to the entire work.

For it was our design in the beginning to combine social and political economy in one system, that the minds of our readers should be accustomed to regard all useful labor, whether physical or mental, as a rich and never-failing source of moral enjoyment as well as the means of producing subsistence and wealth.

We have continually borne in mind that the sparcely populated region for whose inhabitants we are now laboring, will in all prob-

ability contain one hundred millions of human beings within the lifetime of some who now read our Journal, and that whatever influence we may exert upon the public policy of the present day, and whatever doctrines we may inculcate, their effects, if any, for good or for evil, must within the period of a few generations be felt by perhaps one third of the inhabitants of the whole earth. Hence we have exercised great caution in the advocacy of all public measures, and have carefully considered the nature and bearing of all we have ventured to write and publish on philosophical and moral subjects.

The Western Journal, now the Western Journal and Civilian, struggled into existence and has been established under circumstances in every way discouraging.

The Editors were but little known to the public as writers, and had no experience as publishers; they did not propose to advocate the cause of any party in politics or sect in religion; they espoused the cause of no particular order or class of individuals, nor did they propose to promulgate any new doctrines of their own, which were not consistent with the recognized order of society, with philosophy and christianity. And besides, the people of the West, from its earliest settlement, had been accustomed to look to the East for their literature, and could scarcely conceive that, excepting in the form of a newspaper, anything could be written or published in their midst that would be interesting or profitable. A number of Monthlies had been commenced west of the Alleghanies which had failed, and it was to be expected that but few would have sufficient confidence in our enterprise to authorize them to patronize it by subscribing and paying in advance. Under all these discouraging circumstances, we resolved upon the undertaking without a subscriber, and issued the first number in January, 1848, without even publishing a prospectus. For we had determined to place the work upon its own merits, and trust to time and the sound, unbiased judgment of the community for success.

This is the eighty-fourth number of the work, and the leading article in all excepting one has been written by the same hand. It is not our purpose to speak of their merits or of the influence which the Western Journal & Civilian considered as an entire work may have had upon the opinions of individuals or the actions of public bodies. We do not claim to have done more than to have laid the foundation of a great work, which we trust will be continued and

improved indefinitely, or at least until it shall have reached its hundredth volume. We feel that by the unremitting labor of nearly eight years, we are entitled to and have obtained the confidence of a respectable portion of the best judging minds of the West, and aided by the experience of the past and, if possible, by a more intense devotion to the great interests embraced in the original plan, we trust we shall be able to make our labors more interesting and profitable each succeeding year.

We are conscious that much time and labor are still required to give the Western Journal & Civilian that commanding position and influence, which a work of the kind ought to attain in this great valley. But we are not impatient of its slow growth. It is a law of literature as well as of the vegetable kingdom, that rapid development is indicative of early decay; it is by gradual accretions during a long period that great volume and solid, durable strength are attained. Indeed we have eschewed such means as were calculated to give the work a premature circulation. No matter what our success might be, we could not look back upon our labors with complacency or even with "conscience quite at ease," if the fabrick, which cost so much in building, was reared upon an uncertain foundation, or did consist of materials which like annual plants would decay with the seasons that produced them.

Yet the duty of extending the circulation by all proper means is involved in that of publishing the work, and, claiming the confidence of the public on the ground of our past labors, we appeal to the people of the West for a just, we do not say liberal, support. In this appeal we include all classes and denominations, for our labors are devoted to the best interests of all. Let no one conclude that the work will not be useful to him because it does not espouse his particular opinions, or profess to be the organ of his party or sect. No cause which rests upon the opinions of men can be safe and gather strength unless its friends make themselves acquainted with the reasoning and arguments of their opponents. Then, be it known, that we are in the field battling for the cause of truth and of human improvement, according to our own views of the right; and if there should be those who differ with us in respect to the mode of promoting these ends, or if indeed there be any who oppose their attainment, it behooves them to read the Western Journal & Civilian. Let none suppose that they can discharge their obligations to us and themselves by simply expressing their approbation of our la-

bors; the cause in which we are engaged demands a more vitalizing and efficient element to sustain and carry it onward. Let them but afford the means, and we pledge ourselves to procure the talent and artistic skill that shall place the Western Journal & Civilian in the first rank of periodicals in this or any other country, and make it a monument that western men shall point to with pride.

ARTICLE II.

Valley of the Ohio.

BY MANN BUTLER, ESQ.

Continued from page 164, Vol. XIV, No. 3.

Trade to New Orleans in 1782 to 1798; Negociations with Spain about the navigation of the Mississippi; Views of John Jay, of the old Congress; Rejection of them by Spain; Resolutions of Congress, of Virginia; Visit of Wilkinson to N. Orleans, in 1787; Seizure of his boat; Release; Spanish permission of Trade; Price of tobacco in Kentucky and New Orleans, 1787.

TRADE OF THE WEST WITH NEW ORLEANS.—In a former portion of this work, the author noticed the first expeditions of our countrymen down the Mississippi, which have been preserved. These were engagements of individual curiosity, or of a military nature, as those of Cols. Gibson, Linn and Benham; the openings of trade down the great rivers is of no less consequence to the history of the settlement of the Ohio valley.

Among the first buddings of intercourse, rather than trade with New Orleans, from the Valley of the Ohio, must be reckoned the voyages of Messrs. Tardiveau and Honoré, the latter, my authority, was an ancient and respectable French merchant of Louisville in Kentucky. These gentlemen left Redstone, now the town of Brownsville, on the Monongahela, in 1782, when there were but two houses in that famous old port of departure by water, for the immigrants down the Ohio. The navigation of this river, and still more the Mississippi, was then much infested by banditti of white men, as well as of Indians. The French gentlemen just mentioned were both stopped by the Indians, and the former of them robbed; indeed, the Mississippi was as much debarred to American trade, by the overbearing government of Spain, as by the Indians. They acted in concert. American property was seized and confiscated by the Spaniards on its way to a foreign market. "All who ventured on the Mississippi had their property seized by the first com-

manding officer whom they met, and little or no communication was kept up between the two countries."* This was as late as 1798.

A negociation on the subject of the navigation of the Mississippi, as well as other matters of national difference, had commenced between Mr. Jay and Don Diego Gardoqui, the representative of Spain near the United States. "Congress had expressly ordered the Secretary for Foreign Affairs to stipulate both for the territory of the United States according to the treaty with Great Britain, and for the navigation of the Mississippi, from its source to the ocean. Don Gardoqui on the other hand, declared that the Spanish king would never *permit* any nation to use that river, both banks of which belonged to him."† Under these circumstances, Mr. Jay was called before Congress to communicate his views on the negotiation; "he informed Congress that Spain was ready to grant the United States extensive and valuable commercial privileges; and that it was in her power by her influence with the Barbary States, and by her connexion with France and Portugal, greatly to injure the commerce of America, and to benefit that of England. But that at present the question respecting the Mississippi and territorial limits prevented any commercial arrangements whatever; that his own opinion of the justice and importance of the claims advanced by the United States, had undergone *no change*; but that, under present circumstances, he thought it would be expedient to conclude a treaty with Spain, limited to *twenty* or *thirty* years, and for the United States to stipulate, that during that term of the treaty, they would *forbear* to navigate the Mississippi below their southern boundary."‡ This had been recommended by Virginia during the Revolutionary war. This proposition of Mr. Jay was founded on the opinion "that however, imperfect the navigation might ultimately be, it would not probably be very essential, during the proposed term; and that therefore, it might be good policy to consent not to use for a certain period, what they did not want, in consideration of valuable commercial privileges." These views of Mr. Jay were sanctioned by seven States, but opposed by the other six; still the Spanish minister would not consent to any treaty whatever, implying a right in the United States

* Wilkinson's Memoirs, II, App. VI, p. 3.
† Jay's Life, I, 235, 236.
‡ Idem.

to the navigation in question; the negotiation proved fruitless, and was finally terminated by Gardoqui's return to Europe. This is an authentic account of the negotiation under the old Confederation, in regard to the navigation of the Mississippi, which however incontestable to the extent of our own boundary, the United States were in no condition to extort by force of arms, under the feeble government then existing. It was in weakness and insignificance closely allied to what the German empire used to be in Europe; it was, in the language of a favorite Revolutionary figure, a political barrel of thirteen staves without a hoop.

Let us reflect for a moment, what would have been the effect of this cession, even for twenty years, as actually authorised, or thirty years as the utmost limit proposed by the Secretary. Twenty years from 1786 would have brought the commercial limitation to 1806; four years after the bare *suspension* by the local Intendant of the right of deposit at New Orleans granted to the trade of the United States, by the Spanish treaty of 1795. This interruption of the navigation of this great stream blew the western country into a flame, that would have consumed every tie of the confederacy, had its councils slumbered over interests so precious and vital to this section of the United States. It required all the wisdom and patriotism, with the enthusiastic popularity of President Jefferson, to avoid a war with Spain, in support of this navigation. What, then, would have been the feelings of the country, but particularly its western section, had its trade been suspended by treaty obligation for thirty years? What would have been the discouragement to he settlement of the western country? It would doubtless have rghted itself; and no longer continued under a government that ould thus abandon its indispensable interests. Sagacious as the views of Mr. Jay were, and in this instance, adapted to the probabe condition of the western country, and the encouragement of Athntic trade, yet the gigantic progress of the West has outstrippedthe anticipations of our wisest statesmen. Our progress has beena race scarcely checked by any accident on the course. Yet, the enthusiasm of the acute and benevolent Berkely fancied that he saw it, when he exclaimed that "Westward the star of empire takes its way."* Rumors of this negotiation reached Kentucky,

* But even the veteran statesman, Choiseul, predicted the independence and prosperity of America, in 1765, in a memorial to his sovereign. Bancroft, V, 341.

when no post office existed in the District, and when no safe or certain mode of conveyance for letters or newspapers was established between it and the rest of the Union."* Nor for two years later did it reach further than Fort Pitt; and then only once in two weeks.† The seat of the federal government was then the city of New York; these combined difficulties must have subjected the conduct of the government to much misconception, and no little misrepresentation, by intriguing or deluded candidates for political honors.

These exaggerated representations on the subject of a navigation, so deeply and vitally important to the western country, had produced an association at Fort Pitt, which transmitted to Kentucky a most erroneous account of the Spanish negotiation, well calculated to kindle the passions of a less excitable people than her own. This statement purported to represent that "John Jay, the American Secretary for foreign affairs, had made a proposition to Don Gardoqui, the Spanish minister near the United States, to cede the navigation of the Mississippi to Spain for twenty-five or thirty years; in consideration of some commercial advantages to be granted to the United States; but such, as the people of the western country could derive no profit from."‡ The truth is, that the proposition was submitted to Congress, and was supported by seven Northeastern States against five Southern ones; but the offer, if made to the Spanish minister, (which does not certainly appear,) had been rejected by him. An instruction to a minister was deemed to come strictly under the clause in the articles of the Confederation, requiring the assent of nine States to form treaties with foreign nations; consequently the proposition of the Secretary fell in *Congress.* Whether the offer was made after the repeal of the instructions to the Secretary, of the 25th of August, 1785, which as mentioned had been previously carried by the vote of the same States, is not clearly exhibited; though implied by the language of Mr. Jay's biographer, as well as that of Mr. Pilkin.¶ The communication from Fort Pitt, or Pittsburg as it had for some time been designated,‖ roused the sensibilities of Kentucky to a high

* Marshall, I, 257.

† Idem, I, 139.

‡ Idem, 258.

¶ Jay's Life, 2, 238. Pilkin, 1, 201, 208.

‖ The rise of this most thriving and interesting city, the first born of the arts in the West, is faithfully collected by Mr. Craig, in his History of Pittsburg, a

pitch on so exciting a subject and one involving the dearest interests of her trade. A circular letter addressed by Messrs. Muter, Innes, Brown and Sebastian, in March, 1787, invited a public meeting of the citizens of the District, at Danville, in the ensuing May. The language of this memorial has been objected to by the first historian of Kentucky,* because it charged "*Congress* with proposing to cede to the Spanish court the navigation of the Mississippi for twenty-five or thirty years;" while that had failed by an insufficient majority, under the 9th article, of the 6th section of the Confederation. Yet, a previous vote had, with some doubt however on the subject, rescinded the former instruction to Mr. Jay, to conclude no treaty with the Spanish minister without obtaining "the full navigation of the Mississippi from its source to the ocean;" and moreover Mr. Jay was at first instructed neither to make, nor receive any propositions, nor to enter into any compact with the Spanish minister without previously communicating the same to Congress.† The circumstance therefore of *continuing* the negotiation, after the removal of the former restriction, certainly sanctions the idea of the Danville circular, that the suspension of the navigation in question had been offered by Congress, through the Secretary, though it had been disdainfully rejected by the minister of haughty Spain, as has been mentioned.

It must have been owing to want of this information, (almost unavoidable in the early and rude condition of government in its operations in the West,) that induced either of the meetings at Pittsburg or Danville, to procure an expression of public opinion on a matter which had died at its birth.

Nor was the mistake peculiar to these meetings; since a letter addressed from the Falls of Ohio, in December, 1786, to the Governor and Legislature of Georgia, represented "a *commerce* treaty" with Spain "to be cruel, oppressive and unjust. "The *prohibition* of the navigation of the Mississippi has astonished the whole western country. To *sell* us and make us *vassals* to the merciless Spaniards, is a grievance not to be borne." A copy of

work only to be compared with Cist's Miscellany for Cincinnati. From this former work it appears that the lots were laid out and finally confirmed by the act of the proprietaries in 1784. It is spoken of as "*what is called the town*" of Pittsburg by Gen. Washington in 1770; its first incorporation as a TOWN I have not found out. It was incorporated as a city, March 18, 1816. Craig's Pittsburg, 107, 388.

* Marshall, 1, 259.

† Pilkin, 1, 201. Idem, 205.

this letter and others of a similar character were laid before Congress; when on the 16th of September, 1788, this body authorized its members to contradict the reports that it was disposed to treat with Spain for the surrender of their claim to the navigation of the river Mississippi. "This venerable body likewise resolved* "that the free navigation of the river Mississippi is a clear and essential right of the United States, and that the same ought to be considered and supported as such." Before these resolutions had been adopted by Congress, the Legislature of Virginia had also taken up the subject, in November, 1786; and had unanimously resolved 2d. "That the common right of navigating the Mississippi, and of communicating with other nations through that channel, be considered the bountiful gift of nature to the United States, as proprietors of the territories watered by the river and its eastern branches. 3d. That the confederacy having been formed on the broad basis of equal rights in every part thereof, and confided to the protection and guardianship of the whole; a sacrifice of the rights of any one part, to the supposed or real interests of another part, would be a flagrant violation of justice, and a direct contravention of the end for which the federal government was instituted, and an alarming innovation in the system of the Union. 4th. That the delegates representing this State in Congress, be instructed in the most decided terms, to oppose any attempts that may be made in Congress to barter or surrender to any nation whatever the right of the United States to the free and common use of the river Mississippi; and to protest against the same as a dishonorable departure from that comprehensive and benevolent policy which constitutes the vital principle of the confederacy; as provoking the *just* resentments and the reproaches of our western brethren, whose *essential rights and interests would be thereby sacrificed and sold;* as destroying that confidence in the wisdom, justice and liberality of the federal councils, which is so necessary at this crisis to a proper enlargement of their authority; and finally, as tending to undermine our repose, our prosperity and our union itself; and that the said delegates be further instructed to urge the proper negotiations with Spain for obtaining her concurrence in such regulations touching the mutual and common use of the said river, as may secure the permanent harmony and affection of the two na-

* Pilkin, 2, 208, 210.

tions; and such as the wise and generous policy of his Catholic Majesty will perceive to be no less due to the interests of his own subjects, than to the just and friendly views of the United States."

These resolutions deserve to be recorded, for the just and lofty views they express upon the administration of confederated States extending from the Atlantic to the Mississippi. They seem to have had their just effect upon the meeting at Danville; they had been adopted by the Virginia Legislature four months before the circular inviting this meeting; and it adjourned without any definite expression on the subject. A circumstance not a little remarkable for a meeting of Kentuckians, whose temper upon subjects less indispensably important than this, has seldom been so moderate: a fire of resolutions might at least have been expected. The action of Congress and the State Legislature four months previous, must certainly have reached the District, and had this quieting effect.

In June, 1787, General James Wilkinson, who had migrated to Kentucky in 1784, descended to New Orleans with a small cargo of tobacco, determined to try his enterprise and address at the seat of the provincial government of Louisiana, in effecting the commercial intercourse of the western country down the Mississippi. In due course of time the General's boat arrived at Natchez, still in possession of the Spaniards. It was by some secret influence suffered to proceed to New Orleans. "The arrival of a boat belonging to Gen. Wilkinson, loaded with tobacco and other productions of Kentucky, is announced in town; and a guard is immediately sent on board of it. The General's name had hindered this being done at Natchez; as the commandant was fearful that such a step might be displeasing to his superiors, who might wish to show some respect to the property of a general officer; at all events the boat was proceeding to New Orleans, where they would then resolve what measures they ought to pursue and execute."*

The Spanish government was about to pursue its usual policy, by confiscating the General's boat and property, when a "merchant who had considerable influence there, and who was formerly acquainted with the General, represented to the Governor, Estevan Miro, that the measures taken by the Intendant would very probably give rise to disagreeable events; that the people of Kentucky were already exasperated at the conduct of the Spaniards, in seiz-

* Am. State Papers, XX, 704.

ing on the property of all those who navigate the Mississippi; and if this system was pursued, they would very probably, in spite of Congress and the Executive of the United States, obtain the navigation of the river by force, which they were well able to do." This had long been dreaded by the Spanish government. "Hints were likewise given that Wilkinson was a very popular man, who could influence the whole of that country, and probably that his sending a boat before him, with a wish that she might be seized, was but a snare, to influence the minds of the people on his return, and having brought them to the point he wished, induce them to appoint him their leader, and then like a torrent, spread over the country, and carry fire and desolation from one end of the province to the other." "Gov. Miro, a weak man, unacquainted with the American government," was alarmed at the prospect of provoking an irruption of Kentuckians, who seemed to have been regarded at New Orleans worse than they had been at Kaskaskia and St. Vincents, induced the Intendant to withdraw the guard from the boat; and a Mr. Patterson, who was the agent of the General, was permitted to take charge of the property on board, and to sell it free of duty." The General, on his arrival some time after, was informed of the obligation he lay under to the merchant, who had impressed the government with such an idea of his importance and influence abroad, waited on him, and in concert with him, formed a plan for their future operations." Such is the representation of Daniel Clark, Junior, whose uncle of the same name, an old merchant, domiciled at New Orleans, was the agent and alleged partner of Wilkinson. This latter character, the General denies, to have been authorised by him.* Clark was however fully acquainted with the government officers of Louisiana, and was very likely the merchant who interfered so adroitly with the Spanish governor. Wilkinson visited the governor, and in his interview with him, that he might support the Spanish idea of the inconsistency of trade with military dignity, by not appearing concerned in so trifling a business as a boat load of tobacco, hams and butter ; gave him to understand that the property "in the boat belonged to many citizens of Kentucky, who availing themselves of his return to the Atlantic States, by way of Orleans, wished to make a trial of the temper of this government, as he on his arrival, might inform his

* Memoirs. 2, 113. Am. State Papers, XX, 794.

own, what steps had been pursued under his eye; he acknowledged with gratitude the attention and respect manifested in the favor shown to his agent; but at the same time mentioned that he would not wish the governor to expose himself to the anger of his court, by refraining from seizing on the boat and cargo, as it was but a trifle, if such were the positive orders from court, and that he had not power to relax them according to circumstances. Convinced by this intercourse, that the General rather wished for an opportunity of embroiling affairs, than sought to avoid it, the Governor became more alarmed." This apprehension was increased by remembering the demand which had been made two or three years before by Commissioners from the State of Georgia, who had presented the claim of that State at Natchez, for her chartered limits to the Mississippi and to the parallel of 31° N., as established by the first treaty in 1783 with Great Britain. To avoid and appease this accumulating hostility against the possessions of Spain in Louisiana and Florida, and more particularly to conciliate the barbarians of the North, who seem still to inspire the descendants of the Spaniards with fears of unbridled ferocity, Gov. Miro concluded to grant the western people some limited opportunities of trade with New Orleans. "He made Wilkinson the offer of a permission to import, on his own account, to New Orleans, free of duty, all the productions of Kentucky." This conference finally ripened into an agreement "that the Governor should insure Wilkinson a market for all the flour and tobacco he might send, as in the event of an unfortunate shipment he would be ruined whilst endeavoring to do a service to Louisiana." "Flour was always wanted in New Orleans, and the king of Spain had given orders to purchase more tobacco for the supply of his manufactories at home, than Louisiana at that time produced; and which was paid for at about $9,50 per cwt," while in Kentucky it cost but $2 per cwt.

The profit may well be supposed to have been immense on a contract of this sort. "In consequence of this, the General appointed Daniel Clark, Senior, as his agent, and returned to the United States by way of *Charleston*." On his arrival in Kentucky, he bought up all the produce he could collect, which he shipped and disposed of under this contract with Gov. Miro. "For some time all the trade for the Ohio was carried on in his name; a line from him sufficing to ensure the owner of the boat every privilege and protection he could desire." In addition to this tobacco contract,

which figured so conspicuously in the subsequent career of Gen. Wilkinson, he "made an arrangement with Gov. Miro for the introduction of several thousand families in that district on the Mississippi which is now called West Florida, or one to be laid out on the Arkansas and White rivers."* The General likewise obtained the privilege of furnishing a considerable annual supply of tobacco for the Mexican market. These contracts were openly avowed by the General, and publicly acted upon both in Kentucky and Louisiana; as was necessarily incident to contracts so palpable and incapable of disguise. They appeared to the author twenty years ago freed from corrupt and sinister views, by the testimony of Oliver Pollock, for twenty years the confidant of the Spanish governors of Louisiana. They seemed to be corroborated by the testimony of Gilbert Leonard, the treasurer of the province: the accounts current of the agents of Gen. Wilkinson at New Orleans and their own testimony.†

In 1789, Col. Ballinger delivered two mules loaded with money from New Orleans to Wilkinson, at Frankfort, Ky., "in the presence of many persons, whom he found there waiting his arrival;" they were tobacco planters from Lincoln county, Ky., and were there to receive their money for tobacco purchased of them by Wilkinson.

These contracts he, or any other private citizen, had the *most* indubitable right to engage in; they in fact opened a valuable market for the produce of this infant and interior community destitute of almost every other at that day. Indeed the frequent remittances of money from New Orleans to Wilkinson, by various ways suggested by the wilderness routes to this distant market, sometimes by the interior wilderness, or Natchez trace as it was termed; at other times by the river, *seemed* to be fairly and *honorably explained* by this tobacco speculation or contract, which was then utterly and entirely unimpeachable.

It is due to the author to declare that this subject was approached by him with strong prepossessions against the purity and patriotism of the officer. But on sifting the voluminous mass of testimony procured by one military court and four committees of Congress added to that presented to a court of inquiry, and finding

* Wilkinson's Memoirs, vol. 2, 113, 115, 116, 197, 198, App. 1.

† Idem, App. 1, p. 2, and 117, 119, in the body of the volume.

the General acquitted by both courts and their sentence approved, (reluctantly approved in the last instance,) by two Presidents of the United States, the author was forced into the conclusion, that Gen. Wilkinson had been wronged by the suspicions and denunciations long and bitterly indulged against his honesty.

In the whole of these transactions, no foundation was *then* perceived for the shrewd surmise of Mr. Humphrey Marshall, an early and embittered enemy to the General, "that this tobacco contract was a mere cover for a pension, and the clandestine and dishonorable part was carefully concealed from all but coadjutors.*

To be continued.

ARTICLE III.

The Chemistry of Common Life.†

[Continued from p. 201.]

Look next at the food we eat. This is either of vegetable or of animal origin, and what modern chemistry tells us regarding it, is not only full of rich uses and of deep personal interest to every one of us, but is in itself truly marvelous. For, first, it abolishes the artificial distinction which mere sense has long established between animal food and vegetable food. The bread we simply bake is no longer quite different in use and quality from the flesh meats on which learned cooks exhaust their culinary skill. In bread we actually eat the substance of beef, and in bread and butter another form of that marbled flesh on which the eye of the epicure so placidly rests. In every variety of eatable plant there exists a proportion of what chemists call gluten, which is nearly identical with the muscular part of animal flesh, and a proportion also of fat, which is absolutely identical with the fat of animals. How unphilosophical and vain, therefore, the discipline which enjoins and makes a merit of abstaining from a substance when obtained from the body of an animal, and yet allows the use of the same substance when obtained from a vegetable!

Again, it shows us how curiously and by what admirable contrivances this food is prepared for man. Of carbon and nitrogen, such as float in the air, combined with the oxygen and hydrogen

* Marshall, 1, 183.

† From the Edinburgh Review, April, 1855: Art. VII. By James F. W. Johnston, M. D., F. R. S. L. & E. Reader in Chemistry and Mineralogy in the University of Durham, 2 vols. post 8vo. Backwood: 1855.

gases already spoken of, the flesh and tissues of animals, and the solid portions of vegetables in great part consist. But of these only one, the oxygen, serves directly as food either to animal or to plant. The plant, as we have seen, sucks in at times oxygen by its leaves, and some of this oxygen, no doubt, contributes to the formation of its growing substance. The animal also draws in oxygen from the air by its lungs, and uses it directly to build up the tissues of its body. Thus both animals and plants, to a certain small extent, feed upon raw and unchanged oxygen. But neither plant nor animal can so consume or work up elementary or uncombined hydrogen, nitrogen, or carbon.

And here, in pursuing further our inquiries in regard to the way which they are respectively fed, a great difference at once presents itself between the plant and the animal; while, at the same time, a close and predetermined relation is seen evidently to exist between them.

It would be out of place here minutely to discuss the way in which plants and animals are nourished and sustained. It is sufficient to observe, that throughout what may be called dead or mineral nature there exist numerous, more or less simple, compounds of hydrogen, carbon, and nitrogen, which the plant is able to appropriate and employ in building up its growing substance. In the air, for example, there floats, as we have seen, an unfailing supply of carbonic acid. The same gas exists also in nearly all natural waters, and in the soil it is formed abundantly along with other comparatively simple combinations of carbon. All these the plant takes in by its leaves or by its roots, and from them, by a still obscure chemistry, extracts and makes its own the carbon they contain. So from water and ammonia it takes hydrogen—from nitric acid, ammonia, and other compounds, it takes nitrogen—and from the dead earthy matter of rocks and soils it selects and takes up the so-called incombustible, inorganic, or mineral ingredients which are necessary to the production of its perfect substance.

Of raw and simple materials like these, the animal can make nothing. Among them all, water is the only one it can with safety introduce into its stomach, and upon this it cannot live or be sustained. It is upon the results of the plant's labors, upon the substances of the plant's body, the new and usually more complex combinations which the living plant has manufactured from the simpler compounds which nature presents to it—that the herbivorous animal can alone support itself. Out of these, by wonderful methods, which we cannot explain, the plant forms starch, sugar, fat, and gluten, in all their varieties. So formed by the plant, the animal eats them; digests and changes them anew by a further mysterious chemistry which we are only now beginning faintly to follow; and finally fits them into appropriate places in its own body. Thus dead nature daily labors for the food of plants; the living plant daily labors for the food of animals. In the order of nature,

the plant must precede, and accompany, and unceasingly work for the animal. Alone, in the midst of physical nature, man and all other animals would be helpless, forlorn and short-lived.

Thus far, then, our science teaches us how different in relation to external things the life of plants is from the life of animals, and yet how closely and inseparably they are connected; how selected first from earth and air to form the plant, the same matter next builds up the more curious animal frame; and when that is worn out, or dies, returns again to earth and air, to run the same course anew. It thus shows one simple though grand idea pervading all life, embodied in the existing course of animated nature, yet by its manifold and complex details, leading us perpetually to admire the surpassing Workman from whose beneficent intellect it sprung.

And this plant, so essential to the life of all, what a miracle of chemical contrivance and chemical endowment it is! This little sporule, which the unassisted eye can scarcely discern, in which even by the aid of the microscope only an obscure structure can be observed—in this little germ how much discernment and concealed intention really rests! Placed in one condition, it remains unalterably the same for an indefinite period of time. If life is there, it is life in a state of quiescent torpor; quiescent yet watchful; a life of most profound repose. Placed in another condition, it seems at once to perceive the change. It swells and moves; the inner being bursts its shell, and comes forth; slowly and cautiously expands its growing length; feels, as it were, and examines every substance it touches; selects and rejects as suits its purpose; transforms each chemical body it takes up, and fits it for the place it is intended to occupy in the building about to be erected; and with materials so collected and prepared, it builds unceasingly, without wearying, and after a predetermined plan, green leaf, graceful twig, towering stem, blooming flower, luscious fruit, nourishing seed; till through the wonderful working, mechanical and chemical, of that hidden speck of life which so long slept in the microscopic germ, beauty and grace adorn the landscape, and inert useless matter has been abundantly converted into food for man. How slow and limited is our most advanced chemical knowledge, compared with that easy skill so richly given to this tiny seedlet!

Let us leave now those substances which are naturally necessary to human life, and consider for a little those things which by habit have become to modern nations a kind of second nature. In looking to modern life in this point of view, it appears widely distinguished not only from that of classic times, but even from that of the middle ages. Sugar, tea, coffee, cocoa, brandy, and tobacco, have all become familiar to Christian Europe and America within the last three hundred years. By the end of the fourteenth century, the cultivation of sugar had already become important in Western Asia and Northern Africa. Brought into Spain by the Moors, and cultivated in Andalusia, it was planted in the Madei-

ras by the Portuguese, who in 1520 possessed already sixty sugar manufactories in the island of St. Thomas alone. Thence it penetrated to America with the Spaniards, and became a staple article of Spanish American growth. Now, about 4500 millions of pounds of cane sugar, produced chiefly in America, pass yearly through the hands of European and American merchants, while in addition nearly 500 millions of the same kind of sugar are extracted from the beet-root in Northern Europe, and consumed in the different countries of our more eastern continent. It was not till the year 1659 that sugar refining began to be practised in England; and in 1700, the consumption of all England was only 20 millions of pounds. Now, we are not only the great refiners of Europe, but by far the largest consumers of sugar of every variety. In the year 1853, the consumption of the United Kingdom amounted to 818 millions of pounds of sugar, being at the rate of 28 lbs. a year—upwards of half a pound a week—for each of our population. What a change in the habits and modes of living of the people does this imply!

The introduction and rapid spread of the habit of using tea is still more recent and remarkable. The leaf was not brought to Europe till about the beginning of the seventeenth century. Sugar refineries were already in operation in England, when in 1664 the East India Company thought a couple of pounds of tea a not unroyal gift to present to the Queen of England. Now we consume at the rate of two pounds a head as the yearly allowance of every individual in the three kingdoms, and the total annual consumption of the United Kingdom is about 25,000 tons, or sixty millions of pounds! The use of this leaf is specially great in China and Thibet, in Russia, Holland, and England, and in the states and provinces of North America. The entire quantity consumed over this wide area, among about 500 millions of men, is roughly estimated at upwards of two thousand millions of pounds.

Coffee, though less a favorite among us than tea, is preferred to it by several of our continental neighbors. On the whole, perhaps the spread of coffee drinking during the last three hundred years has been more wonderful even than that of tea. It was not till the beginning of the fifteenth century that it was introduced into Arabia from Abyssinia. About the middle of the sixteenth, it began to be used in Constantinople, and in spite of the opposition of priests and Turkish doctors, it may now be considered as the staple minor luxury of Mahomedan life. In the middle of the seventeenth century (1652,) the first coffee-house was opened in London; and now, two hundred years after, the yearly consumption of coffee in the United Kingdom has reached the large amount of 35 millions of pounds. The quantity of the coffee bean actually bought and sold is about 600 millions of pounds every year, and it is in daily use among perhaps 120 millions of men!

We may pass briefly over cocoa, the ancient beverage and nutriment of the Mexican Incas, and still the favorite of modern times of Central America, of Italy, and of Spain. It is consumed to the extent of about 100 millions of pounds a year, and among 50 millions of men.

But what is the chemistry of all this new food and drink, unknown to that ancient life, the manners and features of which form so great a part of our study at school? What new craving in our common nature have they awakened, what old craving more agreeably satisfied? What is their physiological action, in short, and upon what chemical constituents does it depend? Why have entire nations so readily fallen into the new habits, and why do they so pertinaceously cling to them?

By her fireside, in her humble cottage, the lonely widow sits; the kettle simmers over the ruddy embers, and the blackened teapot on the hot brick prepares her evening drink. Her crust of bread is scanty; yet as she sips the warm beverage—little sweetened it may be, with the produce of the sugar cane—genial thoughts awaken in her mind; her cottage grows less dark and lonely, and comfort seems to enliven the ill-furnished cabin. When our suffering and wounded soldiers were brought down frozen and bleeding from the trenches before Sebastopol to the port of Balaklava, the most welcome relief to their sufferings was a pint of hot tea, which was happily provided for them. Whence this great solace to the weary and worn? Why out of scanty earnings does the ill-fed and lone one cheerfully pay for the seemingly unnourishing weekly ounce of tea? From what ever-open fountain does the daily comfort flow, which the tea-cup gently brings to the careworn and the weak?

The answer we are enabled to give to these questions is still very imperfect. Recent chemical and chemico-physiological researches have indeed thrown much interesting light on the nature, composition, and mode of action of the warm infusions we delight to drink, and we can so far satisfactorily account for many of their effects. We may expect our present views, however, to be materially modified by the results of future research.

[To be continued.]

ARTICLE IV.

Origin of Marion College.

AN EXTRACT FROM A FORTHCOMING WORK TO BE ENTITLED "TWENTY-FOUR YEARS' VIEW OF PALMYRA AND MARION COUNTY, IN MISSOURI."

By J. P. Rutter.

[Continued from page 168.]

Mr. Muldrow manifested very considerable diplomatic skill in conducting his agency for the college and himself—skill that would not have shamed an ambassador at the court of St. James or St. Cloud. — Going with a high recommendation from gentlemen of high standing, as Dr. Nelson and others, as a champion in the cause of education and religion, gained for him at once the friendship and confidence of the pious and the wealthy philanthropists of the eastern cities, and gave him access to their purse strings. We have already intimated that Mr. Muldrow was successful otherwise than in obtaining funds directly for the use of the college. It was a master stroke of policy in him to endavor to enlist as many eminent divines of the East in the cause of the college as he could; men of well known talents and of commanding influence; for thereby the standing and reputation of the college would be greatly enlarged and extended; their identity with it would attach to it their friends and all over whom they had influence. Hence the success of the college depended on the large amount of patronage that could be brought to operate in its favor; and the more prosperous the college should become, as a necessary consequence, the more prosperous would every one become whose interests were connected with it; it would enhance the price of lands in the country, &c. But then was there any reason to expect that those renowned and eminent men, reclining on the lap of ease, and surrounded with all the refinements and enjoyments that opulence and wealth can give in the principal cities of America, where they were venerated and almost idolized by their numerous and admiring flocks, would forego all those advantages of comfort and luxury, and go to the wilds of the West, and take up their abode in the wilderness where nought but privation and toil would be their portion? It was not to be expected; and none but William Muldrow, uneducated as he was, could have succeeded in inducing them to make the change. Although unlearned in classic literature, he was well posted up in the

less brilliant but equally useful science of human nature; and how he applied that knowledge acquired in the school of experience, will be seen in the sequel.

It is a saying that has passed into a proverb, and a true one, that death loves a shining mark. So did William Muldrow. And the assertion is no less true in reference to him than in the other case; for he was emphatically *death on great men*, as will also be seen in the sequel. Loving a shining mark, he passed by the common plodding novices in divinity, and men of moderate fortunes; for such he had no use whatever; but he approached men of mark, such as the Rev. Ezra Stiles Ely, D. D., of Philadelphia, Rev. James Gallaher, and others in different cities of the East; and Mr. John McKee, of Pittsburgh, who though not in *orders*, was a presbyterian, and would do to count—for he *counted* his money by the hundred thousand—and Mr. Muldrow well knew that if Mr. McKee was not in *orders*, his money at least would always be in *order*. At those gentlemen, therefore, of the *mental* power and the *metal* power, he made a dead set, and laid violent, vigorous and protracted siege. And such was the vigour of the onset, and such the generalship displayed in the charge and in the choice of weapons, that one after another of the ramparts gave way, until finally the citadel itself was stormed, and a capitulation at discretion was the result, and they submitted to be lead as captives, or as sheep to the slaughter by the unlettered William Muldrow to the far West. He was illustrating his meaning, when he said he was going to cut down big trees, for he did cut them down so low that there are now none so low as to do them reverence.

It is quite edifying to review the principal arguments or weapons of attack which were probably used by Mr. Muldrow, and which were no doubt the most effectual ones used, in inducing those eminent divines to emigrate and take professorships in, and become patrons of Marion College; and it illustrates our statement and remarks above, as to the motive power of self-interest, and of its operation on the hearts even of the best of men, when they are not conscious of its existence. Those Rev. Doctors of course were vastly pious men; we sincerely believe that some of them were so at any rate, and amongst that number we class Dr. Ely. They had the cause of religion much at heart, and felt great anxiety for its universal diffusion; they were no doubt burning with zeal to be useful to their race, and felt much of the self-sacrificing missionary

spirit of the age stirring within them; but then they found another law working in their members against that law of their minds, and threateniug to bring them into bondage. They were of course ready to pursue the path of duty whenever it was made so manifestly plain that there could be no danger of erring. Error in matters of such momentous importance as those affecting the eternal interest of the souls of their fellow-men, could not be committed by men of their profession without their contracting guilt. Here, then, was a question to be settled in their minds, involving heavy responsibilities. How could it be their duty to forsake the dear people of their charges, from whom they had received pressing and *substantial* calls so long and so *loud*? Those people to whom they had so long and so successfully ministered in holy things, and who had so meekly and humbly received at their hands the bread of life; and who had ministered to them so liberally of their temporal things? How could they forsake them perhaps to be scattered and devoured by the adversary, and go to a heathenish, poor and foreign land? No, it could not be; they could not, without a derelict̃ion of duty for sake a place and a people where the Lord had so plainly called them.

But brother Muldrow, as in duty bound, labored to convince them that they had mistaken notions of what their duty was, and he thought he could *demonstrate* to them so plainly, that they were in error, that the devotion of their hearts to the cause of Christian philanthropy would induce them to submit to the dictates of duty and of conscience, and yield their consent to go where duty leads.

Brother Muldrow is a man of facts and figures; it was his habit when he wanted to carry conviction to the minds of others, to sit down and figure out a calculation, and demonstrate by figures, which cannot lie, the truth of his propositions, and make his ideas so very plain, that a wayfaring man, though a fool, could not err. How much more certainly, therefore, could he convince those wise men of the East, who were so capable of seeing and appreciating anything capable of being seen; much more those which were so obviously plain, as he would demonstrate their duty to be.

We have already alluded to the plan of appropriating the surplus of the earnings of the students over and above what was sufficient to pay their board and tuition, to the payment of the professors in the college. This was a plan of Mr. Muldrow's devising; and this was explained to them without any diminution at least, in his pe-

culiar, emphatic and impressive manner of apparent correctness, and in his natural sanguineness of temperament, he depicted in glowing colors the great destiny of the college; the hundreds of students shortly to be within its walls; the large surplus of whose earnings thrown into the coffers of the comparatively few professors, would swell into an aggregate of such magnitude as to amount to a little fortune to each professor within itself, to say nothing of the regular salary to be paid them by the trustees. The men of God were not so dogmatical as not to be open to conviction; to be in the line of duty was their object, and though they had been of opinion that its dictates pointed to another course, yet they were not so far influenced by predelection for preconceived opinions as to suppose that there was no possibility of their being in error as well as others. Far be it from them to arrogate to themselves such a degree of perfection not enjoyed by the rest of mankind—but being both humble and sensible men, they were fully sensible of their fallability as poor blind erring mortals, liable to be lead astray at all times, by the arch enemy of all mankind, who continually goeth about like a roaring lion seeking whom he may devour, and especially ready to assail the faithful with all his fiery darts of temptation, where any great and useful plan for the amelioration, happiness, and more particularly for the salvation of mankind is contemplated; and being an enemy of all mankind, he would of course redouble his diligence to thwart it; and having power to transform himself into an angel of light, would take advantage of poor, sinful, short-sighted mortals, and inject into their minds false notions of duty, in order to turn them away from those important enterprizes which he is crafty and foreseeing enough to see, involves the success of the church militant. Even so he beguiled our first parents in Paradise by misrepresentations and lies. Yes, he is the father of lies, and it behooves us, thought they, to be very careful not to give heed to the seductions and suggestions of the evil one, and be led astray by the enemy of all good. They began to be thankful that the Lord had sent his servant, brother Muldrow, to open their eyes which had been blinded by the God of this world. And esteeming it one of the christian duties to make confession of error, when that error is manifest, and being now fully open to conviction, having surrendered all their prejudices, they exclaimed, "Go on, brother Muldrow, we are now prepared to listen to your proposition, and to appreciate any further arguments you may have

to present in its favor; all we want, is to be convinced what course it is our duty to pursue. We begin to see already that it is possible we may have been in error, and if fully satisfied of it, we will give it up, and follow where the openings of providence clearly point, and go where duty leads. And though our dear brethren here desire our stay amongst them, they do not understand the mysterious dispensations of Providence, and if you fully convince us beyond the possibility of a doubt, that it is our duty as christian ministers to go even to the heathenish and benighted West, where the people are perishing for lack of knowledge, each exclaimed, "hinder me not, ye much loved friends, I'll gladly go with thee.

Brother Muldrow therefore proceeded to offer some additional arguments to determine and settle them in the faith which he was glad to see, was now springing up within them. He proceeded to unfold to them other parts of his great plans, all in connection, having for their ultimate object the speedy conversion of the world. He described the great, the unparallelled advantages of Missouri, particularly spoke of the extreme fertility of her soil, the beauty of the landscapes, the advantages of the best navigable river in the world, the noble Mississippi which washes her eastern border; spoke of the vast quantity of unappropriated lands which any persons could appropriate to their own use, for the mere pittance of one dollar and twenty-five cents per acre; drew a comparison between the very rich lands of Missouri and the very poor lands of the east; cited them to the enormous prices of their poor and worn-out lands, and enquired of them what they might not expect would be the value of the rich lands of Missouri, after a while when they shall become densely populated and dotted all over with colleges; declared another part of his plan, by opening the most prolific leaf of all:—nothing less than the establishment of a college in every Congressional township of six miles square, the whole length and breadth of Upper Missouri — that they could form an association and enter all the land by whole townships; establish a college in the center of each township; lay off a city all around each college; by their giving their influence in favor of such a magnificent project, and taking an interest in it, and becoming identified with it; the whole plan could be worked out. Their influence would soon attract enough persons, men of means, to make the college flourish. The flourishing of the colleges would give great value to the lands, which they could sell at high prices to settlers from the east,

men of wealth also devoted to the interest of the whole concern. The settlement of the land would give additional impetus to the prosperity of the colleges, and the cream of the whole affair would be that the population of the lands by wealthy men and the colleges together, would enable them to sell the lots in the cities at enormous prices, and thus they could educate enough pious young men for the gospel ministry, and send them out all over the world, and in a short time they would solve the problem of the possibility of the accomplishment of the prophecy, that "a nation shall be born in a day," and at the same time each of them could make more than a princely fortune, and live in the splendor and magnificence of eastern nabobs.

The closing remarks of Mr. Muldrow appeared to be conclusive; for they simultaneously exclaimed, Brother Muldrow, it is enough, we clearly see the opening door of Providence in which we will gladly enter to work in the vineyard of the Lord, and we are surprised that we should have remained blind so long. And their hearts overflowed with gratitude to God, that he had in mercy been pleased graciously to discover to them their error, and had in the usual course of his providence, which works by means ere since he made the world, sent his servant brother Muldrow to open their eyes, and turn them from darkness to light, and from the power and influence of Satan to serve the true and loving God; until in a transport of zealous enthusiasm, they each exclaimed, as if emulous who should take the lead in this glorious cause, "Speak, Lord, for thy servant heareth—here am I, Lord, send me." Brother Muldrow was no less overcome with devout gratitude and joy, that he had been made the means, the humble means of turning those great men from the error of their ways, and of putting them in the pathway of duty. He had done his duty, and duty always carries with it its own reward. The great Washington had given expression to the sentiment, that in the dispensations of Providence there is an inseparable union between duty and advantage, and he was about to realize its truth in a substantial way.

It was of course settled that the Rev. Gentlemen would with all speed prepare to emigrate to Marion county, Mo., the field of their future labors. They parted. Muldrow going on his way, rejoicing in his success; and they, after the first transport of gratitude to the Lord for his direction had subsided, calmed down into humble submission to his will, and sat down quietly to muse his praise.

As soon as possible the Rev. Doctors took up the line of march for Marion county, Mo. On their arrival here, there was general exultation on the acquisition of so many men of eminence to aid in building up the college, whose success was now considered certain, and that a proud era had dawned on the literary horizon, that a star was about to arise in the *West*, which by its reflex action was destined to reverse the course of oriental literature, and roll back a flood of lucid light to repay with interest the debt incurred by the reception of eastern science; and that from Marion College were to proceed lights of intelligence whose rays diverging in all directions would carry gospel light to illumine every dark corner of the eastern hemisphere. That Marion College was the nucleus, around which would spring up other colleges, to send forth other lights to light up other lands, until one universal halo of gospel glory would span the heavens. In short, it was hailed as the harbinger and precursor of the dawn of millenial day, when heathenish darkness will be lost in the refulgent blaze of the beams of the sun of righteousness; that from this college and other similar institutions to be speedily established, was to go forth an array of christian missionaries to illustrate the truth of that biblical prediction that "many shall run to and fro, and knowledge shall be increased, that the kingdom of darkness would soon totter to its fall, and be superceded by a kingdom in which dwelleth righteousness and peace.

Article V.

Review.—By Mann Butler.

COTTON IS KING: OR THE CULTURE OF COTTON AND ITS RELATIONS TO AGRICULTURE, MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE, TO THE FREE COLORED PEOPLE AND THOSE WHO HOLD THAT SLAVERY IS IN ITSELF SINFUL. *By an American.* Cincinnati, 1855.

[Continued from p. 174.]

The second proposition drawn from this excellent treatise is the insuperable aversion of the free colored race to labor in articles most demanded by the markets of the world, namely, rice, sugar, cotton, and tobacco. This is established in the most convincing manner by the experience of the West Indies and the United States. It is the result of all the reports from missionaries and travellers

already referred to. Were it not so, why have Hayti and Jamaica been reduced by the emancipation of the slaves to their present miserable condition, little short of the barbarism, in which they were involved before the European discovery and settlement of these delicious and luxuriant islands? Can the presence of the white man, now disarmed of his power by law under a government, if anything hostile to him, amid the colored people, account for their degrading aversion to all the necessary labor of society? Hence the expensive introduction of Coolies, Chinese and Portuguese; yet with poor success. Can antipathy to the white capitalist and landlord, altho' ready to compensate the laborer for his work, overgo the inducements of high wages, and work too much at the pleasure of the operative, in a market understocked with labor? Can a spirit of mutual hatred and opposition between the races, formerly so disproportioned to each other in their legal condition, still array them against each other in spite of freedom and wages? Liberia may possibly give some answer to this enquiry. She is at present too short lived to authorize much practical reliance on her example. Why are not the free colored people found in the cheap farming lands of the West and South as freely as in the crowded purlieus of the towns? Yet all observation finds them clubed in the cities, living from hand to mouth, in the most dependent condition of humanity; thronging the most menial duties of town service? Were this not the disposition of the free colored race among us, why have their warmest and most enlightened friends exerted themselves so heroically, and yet with such circumscribed effect, to procure the establishment of Liberia, and to place it under the exclusive government of the black men?

How feebly the colonization society have succeeded in its noble and philanthropic labors, needs but little exposition. It is too little consolatory to its friends to require remark from me. My purpose is not to depreciate that noble scheme of generous humanity to a down trodden race, but only to show the repugnance of the free colored race among us, to perform the indispensable labors of cultivated and civilized life. They prize with true barbarian instinct, present ease above future enlarged enjoyment. They prefer the spontaneous and simple products of a most luxuriant soil, to all the heightened enjoyments of industrious and civilized life. It is the old preference of the savage for his woods and his appetites, rather than labor and forbear, in order to obtain the refinement

of higher cultivation, as the rewards of his providence and foresight.

But we now come to one of the most important and interesting views of our author, worthy of the strictest attention and regard. It is "the present relations of American slavery to the industrial interests of our own country, to the demands of commerce, and to the present political crisis." This is indeed a grand aspect of the subject. There are two great parties to these relations, around which all the others are gathered in subordinate attitudes. The first are the cotton manufacturers, and the second are the cotton planters. The former aim at the monopoly of the world market for their respective countries of the cotton manufactures; the latter aim at the supply of the cotton for these manufactures wherever they exist. The manufacturing interest wants low cotton and low wages for its workmen; the planting interest wants lands, slaves, machinery, and provisions at the lowest possible rates. In this competition spreading itself over the whole earth, wherever trade has winged its wide flight, let us see how the various classes and interests of society arrange themselves around those two leading interests. And first, let us see how this great market has gradually developed itself in the history of the world. It may be best exhibited in the form of tables, as the author has most laboriously done in his appendix, at greater length than this review can represent the matter; but in a manner worthy of the utmost regard of the curious reader.

British consumption and import of Cotton from 1641 to 1853.

1641 Cotton manufactures first named in English history.

	Total imports in lbs.
1697	1,976,359
1771 to 1775 average	6,766,613
1791	28,706,675
1794	24,358,567
1796	32,126,357
1798	31,880,641
1806	58,176,283

Total consumption.

1818	109,802,000
1853	646,376,848

U. S. annual exports of Cotton to Great Britain and Europe generally.

1747–48, 7 bags or bales of Cotton were shipped from Charleston, S. C., to England.

1770, 2000 lbs. were shipped to same

1771, 71 bags shipped and seized in England on the ground that America could not produce so much.

1791, 189,316 lbs.

1794, cotton of U. S., 8,000,000 lbs. Export, 1,601,760 lbs.

1796, Do. 10,000,000 lbs. Export, 6,100,000 lbs.

1798, 9,330 (1st import from India, 1,622,000 lbs.

1806, 37,500,000; whole cotton crop of U. States, 80,000,000.

1818, 92,500,000; total crop of the U.S., 125,000,000 lbs.

1853, 1,111,570,370; whole cotton crop U. S., 1,600,000,000 lbs.

In this last year Great Britain imported from India, 180,431,496 lbs.
" " " " " U. S., 768,596,498 "
" " United States exported to Europe, 335,271,064 "

Thus has the cotton market of the United States risen from zero, in 1747–8, to 1,600,000,000 lbs., or 4 millions of bales (400 lbs. to the bale,) in 1853. In this period of a century, the export of cotton has risen to a value of $109,496,404; our own consumption has amounted to $18,543,596. Our importations of cotton manufactures amounted in 1853 to $27,675,000. This too, when our whole exports, except cotton, only amounted to 33,809,126; thus trebling the export of all other articles of foreign trade. The cotton crop then is worth to the foreign market $109,496,404, which added to our domestic consumption, consisting of $53,100,290 of home supplies, and $26,477,450 foreign, making $79,578,240, and forms a grand total of $189,074,644, as the moneyed value of this production in the commerce of the United States.

Nor is the article of cotton, mighty as it is, the only interest in slave labor which the United States possess. They raise, according to the second table of our author, ingeniously and industriously deduced from the Patent Office Report, Abstract of Census, Rep. Com. Nav., &c., and formed into the following table:

Cattle and their products,	$400,000,000
Horses and mules	300,000,000
Sheep and wool	46,000,000
Hogs and products	160,000,000
Indian corn and meal	240,000,000
Wheat, Flour	100,000,000
Rye, Meal	12,600,000
Peas and beans	54,144,874
Potatoes	42,400,000
Apples, (1850)	7,723,326
Hay, 1850, $10 per ton	138,385,790
Hemp	4,272,500
Sugar cane and maple	36,900,000
Rice	8,750,000
Tobacco	19,900,000
Cotton	128,000,000

These items swell their amount to a grand total of $1,699,076,490 in value; of which our own export is, exclusive of $120,775,723 for cotton and tobacco, only $33,809,126; but which added to the value of cotton and tobacco exported, becomes $154,584,849.

In these massy numbers there may be millions amiss without affecting the general result; that depends on the relative value of the exports of free labor and slave. This constitutes the balance of trade which is the gist of the argument for the purpose in hand.

The ratio may be stated in another form; slave labor may be represented by $120 millions, and free labor by $33 millions; that is the value of the produce of slave labor exported is nearly quadruple that of free labor exports.

Our account of indebtedness to slave labor is not yet closed. "Our imports of coffee, tobacco, sugar, and molasses, for 1853, amounted in value to $38,479,000; of which the hand of the slave in Brazil and Cuba mainly supplied to the value of $34,561,000.* Still these are but four foreign items of the great account between slave labor and free, exhibited by the trade of the United States. "Of the domestic grown tobacco, valued at $19,975,000, of which we retain nearly one half, the slave States produced to the value of $16,878,000; of domestic rice, the product of the South, we consume $7, 092,000; of domestic slave grown sugar and molasses we take for home consumption to the value of $34,799,000, making our grocery account with *domestic slavery*, foot up the sum of $50,449,000,† our whole indebtedness to slavery foreign and domestic, for these four commodities, after deducting two millions of re-exports, amounts to $82,607,000. By adding the value of the foreign and domestic cotton fabrics consumed annually in the United States to the annual cost of the groceries which they use, our total indebtedness for articles of slave labor origin, will be found swelling up to the enormous sum of $162,185,240."†

This is the *massy* incorporation of slave labor in the trade of the United States. Can madness be carried to an extreme, that should contemplate its destruction by abolishing at once the slavery of the negroes employed in its production? Or in any other manner, destroying the market for the exchange of such enormous masses of human labor, for the clothing, the food and the comforts of mankind.

Were this abolition to be followed by an immediate elevation of the freed race, contrary as it would be to all the laws of human progress, still such a social revolution and disorganization might well demand the soberest consideration, the calmest deliberation from its advocates. But when all experience which has hitherto exhibited its light, shows that the success of such abolition is to be followed by every species of social desolation, murder and massacre, the return of society to primitive ignorance and barbarity, how

* Page 51.
† P. 52.

can we, with our tolerance for the infatuation of the human mind, brand the conduct with sufficient reprobation? What substitute shall $133 millions of foreign exports of slave labor find? By what means shall the export of $33 millions of free labor in provisions be raised to meet an import of $250 millions of foreign commerce? Is it not sufficient to state these mighty questions pregnant with the very life and subsistence of society, without following them into the frightful consequences of mutinous laborers, refusing to work, and ripe for every species of social disorder and violence? Must the bloody details of Haytian massacre and revolution, of the barbarism of the Jamaica and Demarara negroes be reiterated in all their horrors, before our countrymen can be brought to their senses?

And is this enormous product of slave labor supported by itself? Nothing farther from the truth; it lives on the products of free labor in provisions, in mechanic arts, in manufactured cotton, and in shipping. The farmers of the North and the West furnish the pork, the flour, the corn, the horses, mules and much of the beef, to feed and help the slave in his work; the mechanics of New England make and frame the cotton gins and sugarhouse machinery, cast at northern foundries, to complete the products of slave labor; the manufacturers of the East and Europe furnish the cotton fabrics, to clothe the slave and his master, which their seamen bring to southern ports in their own shipping built at the North. *How, in the absense of slave labor, shall this great social vacuum be filled?* Let the laborers, the mechanics, the manufacturers, the sailors, the ship carpenters, and the merchants of the free States ponder upon the answer to this enquiry.

These various classes spread over the globe, form the army of agents employed in the service of *King Cotton*. They all pant for his employment, eat the sugar and rice, drink the coffee, chew the tobacco, and wear the cotton, which this opulent monarch furnishes from his inexhaustible treasures. Let these various classes clean their hands of any participation with the owners of slaves by utterly refusing to consume the enjoyments and luxuries produced by them, though they have augmented the mass of social happiness, and have made society more worthy of enjoyment, before they become abolitionists and brand the slave holder with their reprobation. Shall it be a question, whether we shall continue to wear cotton fabrics, drink coffee, sweeten anything with sugar or molasses, smoke, chew or snuff tobacco, eat rice, or in any way

directly or indirectly connect ourselves with the consumption of slave products? With whom then shall we deal? Not with any people within the northern tropic or near it; with none of the States of our own confederacy south of Pennsylvania and the Ohio river. And will not our philanthropists preserve their consistency by looking into the condition of the *serfs* of northern Europe, the *Peons* of Mexico, and in fine, the oppressed of all nations and conditions of men? Will not these modern *Puritans*, (I speak it not in disdain of their heroic predecessors, to whom honor enough can never be given,) in peace leave a country which they deem contaminated by so direful an evil as domestic slavery, or seclude themselves in another paradise of their own, with angels armed with flaming swords at its gates, to keep off the impure, exclaiming with the priests of antiquity, "Procul, procul, este Profani!" Avanut ye impious!

ARTICLE VI.

Para.

From the Exploration of the Valley of the Amazon, made under direction of the Navy Department, by WM. LEWIS HERNDON and LARDNER GIBBON, Lieutenants United States Navy. Part I. By Lieut. HERNDON. Published by order of the Senate United States.

The city of *Santa Maria de Belem do Grao Para*, founded by *Francisco Caldeira do Castello Branco*, in the year 1616, is situated on a low elbow of land at the junction of the river Guama with the river Para, and at a distance of about eighty miles from the sea.

A ship generally requires three tides, which run with a velocity of about four miles to the hour, to reach the sea from the city.

Para is not fortified, either by land or water. There is a very small and inefficient fort situated on an island about five miles below the city; but it is only armed with a few ill-conditioned field-pieces, which do not command the channel. There is also a small battery in the city near the point of junction of the two rivers; but there are no guns mounted, and its garrison could be easily driven out by musketry from the towers of the catheral.

The harbor is a fine one; it is made by the long island of Oncas in front, and at two miles distance, with some smaller ones further down the river. There is an abundance of water, and ships of any size may lie within one hundred and fifty yards of the shore. There

is a good landing-place for boats and lighters at the custom-house wharf; and at half tide at the stone wharf, some five hundred yards above;

The corporation was engaged, during my stay, in building a strong stone sea-wall all along in front of the town. This will make a new wide street on the water-front, and prevent smuggling. Formerly, canoes, at high stages of the river, would land cargoes surreptitiously in the very cellars of the warehouses situated on the river.

The city is divided into the freguezias, or parishes, of Se and Campina. Nine other freguezias are included in the *municipio* of the capital; but many of these are leagues distant, and should not geographically be considered as belonging to the city, or their population be numbered in connexion with it.

The population of the city proper numbered, in 1848, (the last statistical account I have, and which I think would differ very little from a census taken at this time,) nine thousand two hundred and eighty-four free persons, and four thousand seven hundred and twenty six slaves. The number of inhabited houses was two thousand four hundred and eighteen; of births, seven hundred and eighty-five; of marriages, ninety-eight; of deaths, three hundred and seventy-five; and of resident foreigners, seven hundred and eighty-four.

Para was a remarkably healthy place, and entirely free from epidemics of any kind, until February, 1850, when the yellow fever was taken there by a vessel from Pernambuco. It was originally brought from the coast of Africa to Bahia, and spread thence along the coast. The greatest malignancy of the disease was during the month of April, when it carried off from twenty to twenty-five a day.

About the same time the next year, (the fever being much diminished,) the small-pox broke out with great violence. About twenty-five per cent. of the population died from the two diseases. I imagine that the city will now never be entirely free from either; and the filthy condition in which the low tide leaves the slips, in which lie the small trading craft, must be a fruitful source of malaria, and an ever-exciting cause of epidemic.

The crews of these vessels, with their families, generally live in them. They are consequently crowded; and, when the tide is out, they lie on their sides, imbedded in a mass of refuse animal and vegetable matter, rotting and festering under a burning sun.

Para, however, is an agreeable place of residence, and has a delightful climate. The sun is hot till about noon, when the sea breeze comes in, bringing clouds, with rain, thunder and lightning, which cool and purify the atmosphere, and wash the streets of the city. The afternoon and evening are then delicious. This was invariable during my stay of a month.

The rich vegetable productions of the country enhance much the beauty of the city. In nearly all the gardens grow the beautiful miriti palm, the cabbage palm, the cocoa-nut, the cinnamon, the bread-fruit tree, and rich green vines of black pepper. The rapidity of vegetable growth here is wonderful. Streets opened six months ago, in the suburbs of the city, are now filled up with bushes of the *stramonium*, or Jamestown weed, of full six feet in height. There are a number of almond trees in various parts of the town, which are very ornamental. These thees throw out horizontal branches, encircling the trunk at intervals of five or six feet, the lowest circle being the largest, so that shey resemble in shape a Norfolk pine. Mr. Norris and I thought it remarkable that in a row of these trees planted before a house, or line of houses, those nearest the door were invariably the farthest advanced in growth. This we particularly remarked in the case of a row planted before the barracks, in two parts of the city. The tree under which the sentinel stood, in both cases, was the largest of the row.

We saw, in a walk in the suburbs of the town, what we thought to be a palm tree growing out of the crotch of a tree of a different species; but, upon examination, it appeared that the tree, out of which the palm seemed growing, was a creeper, which, embracing the palm near the ground, covered its trunk entirely for fifteen or twenty feet, and then threw off large branches on each side. It may seem strange to call that a creeper, which had branches of at least ten inches in diameter; but so it was. It is called in Cuba the parricide tree, because it invariably kills the tree that supports it. (*Har. Mag., January*, 1853.)

The most picturesque object, however, in Para was the ruins of an old opera house near the palace. The luxuriant vegetation of the country has seized upon it, and it presents pillar, arch, and cornice of the most vivid and beautiful green.

The society of Para is also agreeable. The men, I am sorry to say, seem to be above work. Most of them are *Hidalgos*, or gentlemen; and nearly all are in the employ of the government, with exceedingly small salaries. In the whole city of Para, I am told, there are not a dozen Brazilians engaged in trade of any kind. The women are simple, frank, and engaging in their manners, and very fond of evening parties and dancing. I attended a ball, which is given monthly by a society of gentlemen, and was much pleased at the good taste exhibited it its management. Full dress was forbidden. No one was permitted to appear in diamonds; and the consequence was that all the pretty girls of the merely respectable classes, as well as of the rich, were gathered together, and had a merry time of it.

But the principal charm of Para, as of all other tropical places, is the *Dolce far niente*. Men, in these countries, are not ambitious. They are not annoyed, as the more masculine people of colder climates are, to see their neighbors going ahead of them.

They are contented to live, and to enjoy, without labor, the fruits which the earth spontaneously offers; and, I imagine, in the majority of cases, if a Brazilian has enough food, of even the commonest quality, to support life, coffee or tea to drink, cigars to smoke, and a hammock to lie in, that he will be perfectly contented.

This, of course, is the effect of climate. There was a time when the Portuguese nation, in maritime and scientific discoveries—in daring explorations—in successful colonization—in arts and arms—was inferior to no other in proportion to its strength; and I have very little doubt but that the bold and ambitious Englishman, the spirited and cosmopolitan Frenchman, and the hardy, persevering, scheming American, who likes little that any should go ahead of him, would alike, in the course of time, yield to the relaxing influence of a climate that forbids him to labor, and to the charm of a state of things where life may be supported without the necessity of labor.

To make, then, the rich and varied productions of this country available for commercial purposes, and to satisfy the artificial wants of man, it is necessary that labor should be compulsory. To Brazil and her political economists belongs the task of investigation, and of deciding how, and by what method, this shall be brought about.

The common sentiment of the civilized world is against the renewal of the African slave trade; therefore must Brazil turn elsewhere for the compulsory labor necessary to cultivate her lands. Her Indians will not work. Like the *llama* of Peru, they will die sooner than do more than is necessary for the support of their being. I am under the impression that, were Brazil to throw off a causeless jealousy, and a puerile fear of our people, and invite settlers to the Valley of the Amazon, there might be found, among our Southern planters, men, who, looking with apprehension, (if not for themselves, at least for their children,) to the state of affairs as regards slavery at home, would, under sufficient guarantees, remove their slaves to that country, cultivate its lands, draw out its resources, and prodigiously augment the power and wealth of Brazil.

The negro slave seems very happy in Brazil. This is remarked by all foreigners; and many times in Para was a group of merry, chattering, happy-looking black women, bringing their baskets of washed clothes from the spring, pointed out to me, that I might notice the evils of slavery. The owners of male slaves in Para generally require from each four or five testoons a day, (twenty testoons make a dollar,) and leave him free to get it as he can. The slaves organize themselves into bands or companies, elect their captain, who directs and superintends their work, and contract with a certain number of mercantile houses to do their porterage. The gang which does the porterage for Mr. Norris, and for nearly

all the English and American houses, numbers forty. Each man is paid about three cents to fill a bag or box, and four cents to carry it to the wharf and put it aboard the lighter. It costs from one hundred and fifty to two hundred dollars to discharge and load a moderate-sized ship.

I have frequently seen these gangs of negroes carrying cocoa to the wharf. They were always chattering and singing merrily, and would stop every few minutes to execute a kind of dance with the bags on their heads, thus doubling their work. When the load was deposited, the captain, who does no work himself unless his gang is pressed, arrays them in military fashion, and marches them back for another load.

For carrying barrels, or other bulky and heavy articles of merchandise, there are trucks, drawn by oxen.

Churches are large and abundant in Para. The cathedral is one of the finest churches in Brazil. Its *personnel*, consisting of dignitaries, (*dignidades*,) canons, chorists, and other employés, numbers seventy-four.

A large convent of the Jesuits, near the cathedral, having a very ornate and pretty chapel attached, is now used as a bishop's palace, and a theologigal seminary. The officers of the seminary are a rector, a vice-rector, and six professors; its students number one hundred and fifteen; its rental is about five thousand dollars, of which one thousand is given from the provincial treasury; and it teaches Latin, the languages, philosophy, theology, history, geography, and vocal and instrumental music.

There are but two convents in Para — one of the order of St. Anthony, and one of Shod Carmelites.

I attended the celebration of the festival of the Holy Cross, in the chapel of the convent of the Carmelites. There was a very large, well-dressed congregation, and the church was redolent of the fragrance of sweet-scented herbs, strewn upon the floor. There were no good pictures in the church, but the candlesticks and other ornaments of the altar were very massive and rich. In the insurrection of the Cabanos the church property was spared; but I am told that, though they have preserved their ornaments, the priests have managed their property injudiciously, and are not now so rich in slaves and real estate as formerly.

I imagine that the priesthood in Brazil, though quite as intelligent and able as their brethren of Peru, have not so great an influence in society here as there. This is seen in an anecdote told me of a rigid *Chefe de Policia*, who fordid the clergy from burying one of their dignitaries in the body of the church during the prevalence of the yellow fever; but compelled them, much against their will, to deposit the body in the public cemetery, and accompanied the funeral procession on horseback to see that his orders were obeyed. It is also seen in the fact that the provincial assembly holds its sessions in a wing of the Carmelite convent, and that

a part of the church of she Merced is turned into a custom-house and a barracks.

There are forty-one public primary schools in the province, educating one thousand and eighty-seven pupils. This gives a proportion of one for every one hundred and six free persons in the province. Each pupil costs the State about seven and a half dollars.

In the four schools of Latin, one person is educated in every five hundred and sixty-four, at a cost of twenty-six dollars.

In the college of Para, called "*Lyceo da Capital*," the proportion educated is one to two hundred and eleven, at a cost of sixty-two dollars.

There are two capital institutions of instruction in Para — one for the education of poor boys as mechanics, who are compelled to pay for their education in labor for the State; and the other for the instruction in the practical business of life of orphan and destitue girls. I think that this education is compulsory, and that the State seizes upon vagabond boys and destitute girls for these institutions. There is also another school of *educandos* for the army.

The province also maintains three young men for the purpose of complete education in some of the colleges of Europe.

There are several hospitals and charitable institutions in the city, among which is a very singular one. This is a place for the reception of foundlings maintained by the city. A cylinder, with a receptacle in it sufficiently large for the reception of a baby, turns upon an axis in a window; any one may come under cover of of night, deposit a child in the cylinder, turn the mouth of the receptacle in, and walk away without being seen. Nurses are provided to take charge of the foundling.

Though I pumped all my acquaintances, I could get no statistics concerning this institution, or whether it was thought to be beneficial or not. I judge, however, that for this country it is. Public opinion here does not condemn, or at least treats very leniently, the sins of fornication and adultery. This institution, therefore, while it would tend to lessen the crime of infanticide, would not encourage the above mentioned sins by concealment. In speaking thus, I do not at all allude to the higher classes of Brazil.

The executive and legislative government of the province is in a president and four vice presidents, appointed by the Crown, and in a legislative assembly.

The provincial assembly meets once a year, in the month of May. The length of its sessions is determined by itself. It elects its own presiding officer. It is a very inefficient representative system. The people in the districts elect electors, who choose delegates and *suplentes*, or proxies. Most of these proxies belong to the city; they have little knowledge of the wants, and no sympathy with the feelings, of the people they represent. Each delegate (at leas

this is the case in the province of Amazonas,) is allowed one dollar and sixty six cents per diem; and the salary of the President of that province is one thousand six hundred and sixty-six dollars and sixty-six cents; it is probable that the salary of the President of Para is greater.

The police of the province is under the direction of a *chefe de policia*, with delegados for each comarca, and sub-delegados for the termos and municipios. These officers issue and visée passports, and the traveller should always call upon them first.

The judiciary consists of *Juizes de direito;* three for the comarca of the capital, and one for each of the other comarcas of the province, besides *Juizes municipaès*, and *de orfaôs*. The Juiz de direito holds a singular office, and exercises extraordinary powers; besides being the judge, he presides over the jury, and has a vote in it. An appeal lies from his court, both by himself and the defendant, to a higher court, called the Court of *Relacao*, which sits in Maranham and has jurisdiction over the two provinces of Maranham and Para. There are three or four such courts in the empire, and an appeal lies from them to the Supreme Court at Rio Janeiro.

Persons complain bitterly of the delay and vexations in the administration of justice. I have heard of cases of criminals confined in jail for years, both in Peru and Brazil, waiting for trial. It is said also, though I know nothing of this, that the judges are very open to bribery. I think, however, that this is likely to be the case, from the entire inadequacy of the salaries generally paid by the government.

I believe that the Brazilian code is mild and humane, and I am sure that it is humanely administered. The Brazilians have what I conceive to be a very proper horror of taking life judicially. They do not shrink in battle, and sudden anger and jealousy will readily induce them to kill; but I imagine the instances of capital punishment are very rare in Brazil.

The police of the city is excellent, but, except to take up a drunken foreign sailor occasionally, it has nothing to do. Crime—such as violence, wrong, stealing, drunkenness, &c.—is very rare in Para. Probably the people are too lazy to be bad.

The province covers an area of about 360,000 square miles, and has a population of 129,828 free persons, with 33,552 slaves.

Much as it needs population, it has suffered, from time to time, considerable drainage. It is calculated that from ten to twelve thousand persons were killed by the insurrection of the Cabanos, in 1835. Since that time ten thousand have been drawn from it as soldiers for the southern wars; and the yellow fever and smallpox, in one year, carried off between four and five thousand more.

The war of the Cabanos was a servile insurrection, instigated and headed by a few turbulent and ambitious men. The ostensible

cause was dissatisfaction with the provincial government. The real cause seems to have been hatred of the Portuguese.

Charles Jenks Smith, then consul at Para, writes to the Hon. John Forsyth, under date of January 20, 1835:

"After the happy conclusion of the war on the Acara, this city has remained in a state of perfect tranquility, until the morning of the 7th instant, when a popular revolution broke out among the troops, which has resulted in an entire change of the government of this province. The President and the *General-das-Armas* were both assassinated at the palace, by the soldiers there stationed, between the hours of 4 and 5 a. m. Inglis, Commandant of the *Defensora* corvette, and Captain of the port, was also killed in passing from his dwelling to his ship. The subaltern commissioned officers on duty were shot down by the soldiery, who, placing themselves under the command of a sergeant named Gomez, took possession of all the military posts in the city.

"About fifty prisoners were then set at liberty, who, in a body, proceeded to a part of the city called Porto de Sol, and commenced an indiscriminate massacre of all the Portuguese they could find in that neighborhood. In this manner about twenty respectable shop-keepers and others lost their lives.

"Guards were stationed along the whole line of the shore, to prevent any person from embarking; and several Portuguese were shot in making the attempt to escape."

A new President and General-das-Armas were proclaimed; but they quarrelled very soon. The President, named Melchor, was taken prisoner and murdered by his guards; and *Vinagre*, the General-das Armas, took upon himself the government. In the conflicts incident to this change about two hundred persons were killed. The persons and property of all foreigners, except Portuguese, were respected. Many of these were insulted, and some killed.

Vinagre held the city, in spite of several attempts of Brazilian men-of-war to drive him out, until the 21st June, when, upon the arrival of a newly appointed President, he evacuated it. During these attempts the British corvettes *Racehorse* and *Despatch*, a Portuguese corvette, and two French brigs-of-war, offered their services for protection to the American consul.

On the 4th of August, Vinagre again broke into the city. The English and Portuguese vessels landed their marines; but, disgusted with the conduct of the President, withdrew them almost immediately. The fire of the Racehorse, however, defeated Vinagre's attempt to get hold of the artillery belonging to the city.

On the 23d of August, the President abandoned the city to the rebels, whose leader exerted himself to save foreign life and property, permitting the foreigners to land from their vessels, and take from the custom-house and their own stores the principal part of their effects.

The rebels held the city until the 13th of May, 1836, when they were finally driven out by the legal authorities, backed by a large force from Rio Janeiro. They held, however, most of the towns on the river above Para till late in the year 1837. They did immense mischief, putting many whites to death with unheard of barbarity, and destroying their crops and cattle. The province was thus put back many years. I think that the causes which gave rise to that insurrection still exist; and I believe that a designing and able man could readily induce the tapuios to rise upon their patrons. The far-seeing and patriotic President Coelho always saw the danger, and labored earnestly for the passage of efficient laws for the government of the body of tapuios, and for the proper organization of the military force of the province. His efforts in the latter case have been successful, and, very lately, a good militia system has been established.

The city of Para is supplied with its beef from the great island of Marajo, which is situated immediately in the mouth of the Amazon. This island has a superficial extent of about ten thousand square miles, and is a great grazing country. Cattle were first introduced into it from the Cape de Verde Islands, in 1644. They increased with great rapidity, and government soon drew a considerable revenue from its tax on cattle.

Before the year 1824, a good horse might have been bought in Marajo for a dollar; but about that time a great and infectious disease broke out among the horses, and swept away vast numbers; so that Marajo is now dependent upon Ceara and the provinces to the southward for its supply of horses. I heard that the appearance of this disease was caused by the fact that an individual having bought the right from the government to kill ten thousand mares on the island, actually killed a great many more; and the carcasses, being left to rot upon the plains, poisoned the grass and bred the pestilence, which swept off nearly all.

Other accounts state that the disease came from about Santarem and Lago Grande, where it first attacked the dogs; then the *capiuaras*, or river-hogs; then the alligators; and, finally, the horses. It attacks the back and loins; so that the animal loses the use of his hind-legs. Government sent a young man to France to study farriery, in hopes to arrest the disease; but the measure was productive of no good results. The disease still continues; and, ten years ago, appeared for the first time in the island of *Mexiana*, not far from Marajo. Within the last year, nearly all the horses on this island have died. I believe it has never attacked the horned cattle.

Beeves are brought from Marajo to Para in small vessels, fitted for the purpose. They are frequently a week on the passage; and all this time they are on very short allowance of food and water; so that, when they arrive, they may almost be seen through.

The butchering and selling are all done under municipal direction; and the price of beef is regulated by law. This is about five and a half cents the pound. Gentlemen maintain horses and milch cows in Para, or its neighborhood. These are fed generally on American hay. Some small quantity of grass is to be had from the *roçinhas*, or small farms, in the environs of the city; and a tolerably good food for cattle is had from a fine flour, found between the chaff and grain of rice. This is called *muinha* (*quim, in Maranham,*) and is very extensively used, mixed with the chaff.

The island of Marajo is very much cut up with creeks, which, in the rainy season, overflow the low land, and form marshes, which are the graves of a great number of cattle. The cattle, at this season, are also crowded together on the knolls of land that are above the waters in the inundation, and many of them fall a prey to the ounces, which abound on the island. These creeks are also filled with alligators. Mr. Smith, former consul at Para, told me that he had seen the carcass of one there which was thirty feet long.

I saw a number of curious and beautiful animals in Para. Mr. Norris had some electric eels, and a pair of large and beautiful anacondas. I had never heard a serpent hiss before I heard these, and the sound filled me with disgust and dread. The noise was very like the letting off of steam at a distance. The extreme quickness and violence with which they darted from their coil [lacerating their mouths against the wire work of the cage] was sufficiently trying to a nervous man; and few could help starting back when it occurred. These animals measured about eighteen feet in length, and the skin, which they shed nearly every month, measured eighteen inches in circumference. They seldom ate; a chicken or a rat was given to them when it was convenient. They killed their food by crushing it between their head and a fold of their body, and swallowed it with deliberation. I imagine that they would live entirely without food for six months.

Many gentlemen had tigers about their establishments. They were docile, and playful in their intercourse with acquaintances; but they were generally kept chained for fear of injury to strangers. Their play, too, was not very gentle, for their claws could scarcely touch without leaving a mark.

Mr. Pond, an American, had a pair of black tigers, that were the most beautiful animals I have ever seen. The ground color of the body was a very dark maroon, but it was so thickly covered with black spots that, to a casual glance, the animal appeared coal black. The brilliancy of the color—the savage glare of the eye—the formidable appearance of their tusks and claws—and their evidently enormous strength—gave them a very imposing appearance. They were not so large as the Bengal tiger; but much larger than the common ounce. They were bred in Para from cubs.

Electric eels are found in great numbers in the creeks and ditches about Para. The largest I have seen was about four inches in diameter, and five feet in length. Their shock, to me, was unpleasant, but not painful. Some persons, however, are much more susceptible than others. Captain Lee, of the *Dolphin*, could not feel at all the shock of an eel, which affected a lady so strongly as to cause her to reel, and nearly fall. Animals seem more powerfully affected than men. Mr. Norris told me that he had seen a horse drinking out of a tub, in which was one of these eels, jerked entirely off his feet. It may be that the electric shock was communicated directly to the stomach by means of the water he was swallowing; but Humboldt gives a very interesting account of the manner of taking these eels by means of horses, which shows that they are peculiarly susceptible to the shock. He says:

"Impatient of waiting, and having obtained very uncertain results from an electrical eel that had been brought to us alive, but much enfeebled, we repaired to the *cano de Bera* to make our experiments, in the open air, on the borders of the water itself. To catch the gymnoti with nets is very difficult, on account of the extreme agility of the fish, which bury themselves in the mud like serpents. We would not employ the barbasco. These means would have enfeebled the gymnoti. The Indians, therefore, told us that they would 'fish with horses,' '*embarbascar con cavallos*.' We found it difficult to form an idea of this extraordinary manner of fishing; but we soon saw our guides return from the *Savannah*, which they had been scouring for wild horses and mules. They brought about thirty with them, which they forced to enter the pool.

"The extraordinary noise caused by the horses' hoofs makes the fish issue from the mud, and excites them to combat. These yellowish and livid eels, resembling large aquatic serpents, swim on the surface of the water, and crowd under the bellies of the horses and mules. A contest between animals of so different an organization furnishes a very striking spectacle. The Indians, provided with harpoons and long, slender reeds, surround the pool closely, and some climb upon the trees, the branches of which extend horizontally over the surface of the water.

"By their wild cries, and the length of their reeds, they prevent the horses from running away and reaching the bank of the pool. The eels, stunned by the noise, defend themselves by the repeated discharge of their electric batteries. During a long time they seem to prove victorious. Several horses sink beneath the violence of the invisible strokes, which they receive from all sides, in organs the most essential to life; and, stunned by the force and frequency of the shocks, disappear under the water. Others; panting, with main erect, and haggard eyes, expressing anguish, raise themselves, and endeavor to flee from the storm by which they are overtaken. They are driven back by the Indians into the middle of

the water; but a small number succeed in eluding the active vigilance of the fishermen. These regain the shore, stumbling at every step, and stretch themselves on the sand, exhausted with fatigue, and their limbs benumbed by the electric shocks of the gymnoti.

"In less than five minutes two horses were drowned. The eel, being five feet long, and pressing itself against the belly of the horse, makes a discharge along the whole extent of his electric organ. It attacks, at once, the breast, the intestines, and the *plexus cœliacus* of the abdominal nerves. It is natural that the effect felt by the horses should be more powerful than that produced upon man, by the touch of the same fish at only one of his extremities. The horses are probably not killed, but only stunned. They are drowned, from the impossibility of rising, amid the prolonged struggle between the other horses and the eels.

"We had little doubt that the fishing would terminate by killing, successively, all the animals engaged; but, by degrees, the impetuosity of this unequal combat diminished, and the wearied gymnoti dispersed. They require a long rest, and abundant nourishment, to repair what they have lost of galvanic force. The mules and horses appear less frightened. Their manes are no longer bristled, and their eyes express less dread. The gymnoti approach timidly the edge of the marsh, when they are taken, by means of small harpoons fastened to long cords. When the cords are very dry, the Indians feel no shock in raising the fish into the air. In a few minutes we had five large eels, the greater part of which were but slightly wounded."

The shops of Para are well supplied with English, French, and American goods. The groceries generally come from Portugal. The warehouses are piled with heaps of India rubber, nuts, hides, and baskets of annatto. This pigment is made from the seed of a burr, which grows on a bush, called urucu in Brazil, and achote in Peru. In the latter country, it grows wild, in great abundance; in the former, it is cultivated.

The seed is planted in January. It is necessary that the ground should be kept clean, the suckers pulled out, and the tree trimmed, to prevent too luxuriant a growth, and to give room, so that the branches shall not interlock. The tree grows to ten or fifteen feet in height, and gives its first crop in a year and a half. It afterwards gives two crops a year. Each tree will give three or four pounds of seed in the year, which are about the size of No. 3 shot, but irregular in shape. They are contained in a prickly burr, about the size and shape of that of the chincapin.

The burrs are gathered just before they open, and laid in the sun to dry, when the seed are trodden or beaten out. The coloring matter is a red powder covering the seed, the principal of which is obtained by soaking the seed in water for twenty-four hours, then passing them between revolving cylinders, and grinding them to a pulp. The pulp is placed in a sieve, called *gurupema*, made

of cotton cloth; water is poured on, and strains through. This operation is repeated twice more, and the pulp is thrown away. The liquor strained off is boiled till it takes the consistence of putty. A little salt is added, and it is packed in baskets of about forty pounds, lined and covered with leaves. It is frequently much adulterated with boiled rice, tapioca, or sand, to increase the weight. The price in Para is from three to five dollars the arroba, of thirty-two pounds.

An examination of the following tables will give the best idea of the commerce of Para. The first is an official report furnished to the provincial assembly by the President of the province.

Years.	Places.	Importation—Value.		Exportation—Value.	
		Relative to each place.	Relative to each year.	Relative to each place.	Relative to each year.
1846	Great Britain.....	$160,050	.....	$117,813	.....
	France	52,924	.....	107,791	.....
	Portugal	87,608	.....	123,156	.....
	Hanse Towns.....	19,993	.....	42,693	.....
	United States.....	235,105	.....	182,742	.....
	Trieste	.....	.....	3,818	.....
	Genoa	.....	.....	26,202	.....
	Spain	2,627	.....	.....	.....
	Baltic ports.....	.....	.....	12,188	.....
	Belgium.....	1,995	$560,302	5,649	$622,052
1847	Great Britain	211,442	.....	116 881	.....
	France	131,347	.....	162,546	.....
	Portugal	108,431	.....	128,548	.....
	Hanse Towns.....	20,519	.....	18,959	.....
	United States.....	230,531	.....	171,577	.....
	Trieste	.....	.....	17,182	.....
	Genoa.....	2,577	.....	22,705	.....
	Belgium.....	6,032	710,879	8,551	646,949
1848	Great Britain.....	149,774	.....	93,508	.....
	France	85,856	.....	114,701	.....
	Portugal	113,496	.....	146,933	.....
	Hanse Towns.....	9,576	.....	30,012	.....
	United States	219,777	.....	145,366	.....
	Austrian domin..	2,686	.....	.....	.....
	Genoa.....	.....	.....	11,609	.....
	Denmark.....	7,638	.....	10,205	.....
	Belgium.....	485	589,286	12,547	564,881

Here are tables furnished by Mr. Norris, United States consul at Para:

American Commerce at Para for 1850.

No. of vessels.	Tonnage	Men.	Val. of imp.	Val. of exp.
23	5,452	275	$420,186	$522,293

British Commerce for 1850.

No. of vessels.	Tonnage	Men.	Val. of imp.	Val. of exp.
16	3,375	276	$199,790	$291,950

Commerce of Para for 1851.

	No. of vessels.	Tonnage.	Men.	Value of imports.	Value of exports.
American	30	4,574	226	$425,484	$476,210
English	14	2,732	139	275,000	335,000
French	10	536	99	122,830	188,699
Portuguese	19	3,666	312	231,457	215,142
Hamburg	2	510	18	27,500	131,000
Belgian	2	320	20	5,250	16,250
Dane	2	480	22	4,750	34,000
Swede	2	420	22	.....	28,500
	81	14,238	858	1,092,271	1,424,801

I am indebted to M. Chaton, French consul at Para, for the following table, showing the mean yearly value of the articles of export from the city of Para.

Products.	Quantities.		Value.
India-rubber	92,000	arrobas.	$552,000
Cocoa	230,000	"	270,900
Cotton	6,126	"	10,583
Cinnamon [rough]	600	"	1,633
Vegetable wax	457	"	69
Tonka beans	80	"	600
Isinglass	998	"	15,968

Products.	Quantities.	Value.
Piassaba rope	42,192 arrobas.	$42,192
Gum-copal	634 "	634
Bones	2,000 "	640
Brazilian nutmeg	1,020 "	3,060
Rice [shelled]	.....	65,126
Annatto	7,210 "	36,050
Sugar	21,359 "	16,012
Sarsaparilla	3,897 "	35,073
Nuts	28,208 alquiers.	18,952
Tapioca	2,000 "	3,000
Rice [in the husk]	12,800 "	6,400
Carajuru	400 pounds.	388
Green hides	406,900	20,345
Guarana	3,450 pounds.	1,500
Cattle	300	4,500
Wood—Bardages	349	614
De fer	113	1,084
Madriers	1,535	1,534
Planches	52,217 feet.	1,468
Dressed hides	15,000	19,445
Tiger skins	228	456
India-rubber shoes	192,000	38,400
Molasses	2,888	2,888
		$1,171,514

To this sum is to be added the value of 7,338 canadas of balsam copaiba, worth when I was there three dollars, now worth seven and a half dollars; besides that of pots of oil made from the turtle; the alligator, and the andiroba-nut, which M. Chaton has not included in his list. These last, however, are inconsiderable.

Extracts of letters from Henry L. Norris, esq., United States consul at Para, to the Department of State:

"Merchandise, the produce of this country, is usually bought for cash, or in exchange for the products of foreign countries by way of discount, nor is brokerage paid for purchasing. Cash usually has the advantage over barter on the price of produce to the amount of from five to ten per cent. The American business is done chiefly for cash, while English, French, and Portuguese, is chiefly for barter; dry goods, &c., are sold on long credit, and produce taken in payment. With the latter the profits of trade are on the outward cargo; while with the former, the profit, if any, is with the homeward.

"There are no bounties or debentures of any kind allowed here

"The usual commission for the purchase and shipment of goods is two and a half per centum, and is the same on all description of produce.

"The American trade, with few exceptions, is conducted either by partners or agents of houses at home; consequently brokers are never employed to buy produce, and no brokerage is paid. When foreign goods are sold at auction. the commission paid is one per cent. on dry goods, and one and a half on groceries.

"Merchandise is brought to market altogether by water, and is usually delivered into the storehouses of the purchaser or on board the shipping.

"Export duties are as follows:

Meio dezimo, [for the church]	5 per cent.
Exportacao, [for the government]	7 per cent.
Vero pezo, [weighing]	½ per cent.

"Capitazia [paid for labor] quarter of a cent the arroba, on all kinds of merchandise.

"These duties are levied on the custom house valuation, which is made at the beginning of each week, and not on the cost of the produce; as in that cost is included a duty of five per cent., which is paid on some articles when they are landed at the port of exportation. This last is a provincial tax, which is levied on India-rubber, tapioca, and farinha.

"Produce coming from an interior province—such as dry hides—does not pay the *meio dezimo* of five per cent., as it is paid at the time of embarking at the place of production; and this duty, together with freight, labor, &c., enters into the cost price of the merchandise at this port, which is the only shipping port for the provinces of Para and Amazonas.

"There are no dock, trade, nor city dues to be paid at this port.

"Lighters are hired at two dollars per day; they carry from forty to fifty tons.

"Porterage is done by blacks, who place the cargo in the lighters at prices varying, according to the distance carried, from three to four cents per bag for cocoa, India-rubber, &c., and from six to eight cents each for barrels and boxes.

"Nuts and rice in husk are delivered alongside the vessel at the expense of the seller.

"Packages — such as boxes, barrels, and bags — are imported from the United States, and with the exception of barrels, which come filled with flour, pay a duty of thirty per cent.

"The cost of cooperage is eight cents per barrel. All local imports or taxes are paid by the producer, and are included in the selling price of the article. The purchaser receives with the merchandise a receipt that the provincial duty has been paid, which receipt is demanded at the time of exportation to a foreign country or to another province.

"There is so little intercourse with the States bordering on this province, that there are no laws in force regulating the transit of merchandise from Peru, Bolivia, Ecuador, &c., but all merchandise coming down the Amazon is considered as the produce or manufacture of Brazil.

"By a law of Brazil, the estate of any foreigner who may die in this country, is subject to the jurisdiction of the *Juiz dos Ausentes e difuntos.* A will is no protection to the property, but it must be 'recovered, availed, and deposited in the public depository by a juiz competente.' The getting hold of the property by the heirs to an estate is a tedious and expensive process; and when the inheritance consists of real estate, about twenty per cent. is consumed by taxes of various kinds, and in some cases, by the collusion of the officers entrusted with settlement, it has disappeared entirely. The French by treaty are exempted from this.

"Not longe since, at Maranham, a guard of soldiers was placed around the dwelling of a foreigner about to die, and who was supposed to be possessed of a large amount of personal property. A similar case also occurred here, which has created alarm amongst those of our countrymen who have property invested in this country; for should it be made to appear that, upon the death of one or more of the partners of any of our large mercantile houses, the affairs of the concern must pass into the hands of a '*juiz competente*,' it would have a serious effect upon the credit and standing of all the citizens or subjects of those nations which have no treaty with Brazil on this subject."

It remains for me but to express my grateful acknowledgments for personal kindness and information afforded by many gentlemen of Para, particularly by Mr. Norris, the consul, and by Henry Bond Dewey, esq., now acting consul. These gentlemen were unwearied in their courtesy, and to them I owe the information I am enabled to give concerning the history and present condition of the province and the city.

On May 12th, by kind invitation of Captain Lee, I embarked in the United States surveying brig 'Dolphin', having previously shipped my collections on board of Norris's clipper barque the *Peerless.*

ARTICLE VII.

My Own Times.

From a forthcoming work from the pen of Ex-Gov. REYNOLDS.

CHAPTER XV.—*The Morals of the Illinois Pioneers.*

The poverty of the country in early times, and the sparseness of the population, must furnish the reason that the pioneers of the country at an early day were more moral than the people are at present. It requires the means, as well as the intention, to commit sin. One other reason is, perhaps, that in early times the people being fewer in number, knew one another better than they do now. Then public opinion was more certain to fix on a crime and criminal than it is now, when the people are so numerous and seem to be more irresponsible. It is my sincere conviction that morality was more practised and more respected in early times in Illinois than it is at this day. I have lived through all the various scenes and changes in the country for more than half a century, and have almost the whole of this period been amongst the people. Under these circumstances I cannot be mistaken; and I state that the people fifty years since in Illinois were more moral than they are at this time.

A white man and an Indian were hung for murder in Kaskaskia, one in 1802 and the other in 1804, and none other was hung in Illinois until 1821, in Belleville. In twenty-two years, to have but two capital punishments, one an Indian, is speaking volumes for the morality of the people. Thefts were of rare occurrence; and forgery, perjury, and similar crimes were seldom perpetrated.

The courts were in session four times in each year in Cahokia and Kaskaskia, and grand juries attending them; but if I recollect rightly, the juries were frequently adjourned without finding one single indictment.

These are the higher crimes I mention as being of rare occurrence—the lower violations of the law were not so rare: assaults and batteries, riots, and similar misdemeanors, arising out of a wild, reckless independence, sometimes occurred. These breaches of the law did not involve any corruption of the heart, but were such that at times they may occur in any community.

It is true that the use of intoxicating liquors was indulged in at that day, some more then than at present. Drinking in primitive times was fashionable and polite, and liquor was considered an element in the conviviality of all circles. Public opinion sustained the use of the bottle at that day, but now it severely condemns it—this is some palliation for the pioneers.

The French were never an intemperate people in the use of liquor.

Most of the drinking and intemperance indulged in by the Americans was in the villages of Cahokia and Kaskaskia, and many good citizens were injured by the excessive use of ardent spirits.

I had reached my fifteenth or sixteenth year, and had seen in the villages and other places much intemperance and immorality arising out of drunkenness. I deliberately reflected on the subject, and without consulting any one, or any one knowing it, I took a solemn resolution never to drink any distilled spirits whatever. My father had fallen into the habits of intemperance to a considerable extent, which was the main reason that induced me to make this decision. He had injured himself and family by his use of ardent spirits; and I was fearful if I drank at all I might fall into the same habits. My humble character was developed some at the time, and I possessed, I feared, the same traits which my father had, which might lead me into the same errors. I was satisfied then, as I am now, that there is no certainty in any other manner than to abstain entirely from intoxicating drinks, if a person wishes to be a sober man. I saw in what manner liquor operated on my father—that when he entered into gay and exciting society that it seemed almost impossible for him to refrain from drinking. This decision has been no doubt of essential service to me, and perhaps saved me from ruin. At that time I had scarcely ever tasted spirits, and knew not at all how it would operate on me; but I saw that liquor had ruined many men, and I concluded it was the safest course to drink none at all.

In early times, in many settlements of Illinois, Sunday was observed by the Americans only as a day of rest from work. They generally were employed in hunting, fishing, getting up their stock, hunting bees, breaking young horses, shooting at marks, horse and foot racing, and the like. When the Americans were to make an important journey they generally started on Sunday and never on Friday — they often said, "the better the day the better the deed."

In many of these American settlements there were no clergymen or houses of public worship, and consequently no religious meetings. Many, like they are at present, would go to church if they had the opportunity. Other colonies observed the Sabbath in a different manner. The older the settlement was, generally, the more the religious worship was observed in it. The aged people everywhere generally remained in their houses on the Sabbath, and read the Bible and other books. Not many worked at their ordinary business on Sunday. It was a custom and habit to cease from labor on that day, except from necessity. When any farmer in olden times, cut his harvest on Sunday, from necessity, public opinion condemned it more severely at that day than at the present. With the Americans there was no dancing and very little drinking on the Sabbath.

The French colonies observed the day in a different manner than the Americans. Worship ended and church over, they were more relaxed in their deportment, and enjoyed the rest of the day in

amusements, merriment and recreation. Dancing, training the militia, house raising, and similar performances, were in pioneer times indulged in by the French on the Sabbath. Public sales of land and other property in early times was held by the French at the church doors on Sundays after the service was closed. I have seen the young folks in France dancing on a Sunday evening under the shade of the trees, on the grass, with as much gentility and decorum as if the dance had been on any other day of the week. The old people were frequently seated around and enjoying the amusement with decided approbation. These customs are congenial to French vivacity and cheerfulness.

The French population frequently assemble on the Sunday evenings and discuss their public business.

The French are guarded against the breaches of higher penal laws.

There never was a Creole Frenchman hung in Illinois since the earliest settlement of the country. Some colored persons were hung in Cahokia for the pretended crime of witchcraft. No Creole was ever sentenced to the penitentiary of this State. Misdemeanors, such as keeping a drinking house open on Sunday, and similar offences, they are at times guilty of and punished by the laws.

In common broils and personal combats the French rarely engaged. They detested a quarrelsome, fighting man; but they had a class of *batailiers*, as the French called them, who prided themselves in single combat.

The Americans indulged in personal combats in those days more frequently than at present: very seldom they had "pitched battles" as they were called, but would fight on the spur of the occasion, and frequently make it up before they parted. They scarcely ever fought unless they had been drinking, and commenced in the heat of passion. In these American fights no rules were observed, but at times eyes and ears were much injured and sometimes destroyed. There is no exhibition of human nature in much more degraded and brutal condition than to be engaged in a "*pitch battle*" or a "*prize fight*" — any fighting is detestable and degrading, but a fight for a wager puts the contestants and the spectators below the level of the beast, and a government or public opinion that will not punish it with the severest penalties of the laws deserves the condemnation of every honest man.

COMMERCIAL DEPARTMENE.

Commerce of the United States.

[From the Merchants' Magazine.]

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR SIX MONTHs FROM JUNUARY 1ST.

	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.
Entered for consumption	$47,044,912	$76,833,164	$70,447,314	$45,897,795
Entered for warehousing	5,027,749	11,506,681	13,726,750	13,832,891
Free goods	7,344,785	8,596,616	9,231,284	7,762,627
Specie and bullion	1,878,181	900,062	1,408,027	454,116
Total entered at the port	$61,295,627	$97,836 523	$94,813,375	$67,947,429
Withdrawn from Warehouse	8,526,777	6,524,654	10,908,044	12,242,076

The month of June ends the fiscal year of the United States. The government returns, including the total for each of the minor ports, are not yet completed, but we have compiled the total for New York. From this we see that the imports for the year ending June 30th are $36,568,978 less than for the year ending June 30th, 1854, $11,884,989 less than for the year ending June 30th, 1853, and $34,237,678 more than for the year ending June 30th, 1852, as will appear from the following comparison:

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE AT NEW YORK FOR THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30TH.

	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.
Entered for consumption	$94,345,831	$136,458,663	$147,939,241	$107,029,210
Entered for warehousing	11,466,714	15,144,573	27,417,160	32,022,396
Free goods	11,926,912	13,357,173	12,791,055	14,230,259
Specie and bullion	2,528 391	1,430,106	2,937.048	1,153,661
Total entered at the port	$120,267,848	166,390,515	191,074,504	154,505,525
Withdrawn from warehouse	16,712,962	13,413,186	19,876,445	23,501,421

For the whole year the receipts of free goods have slightly increased, while the warehousing business is larger than ever before since the system was established. Of the decrease in the imports, by far the largest portion, as compared with last year, has been in dry goods, while compared with the year ending June 30th, 1853, the falling off in dry goods alone is nearly double the aggregate decline. We have compiled the following table in proof of this statement:

IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30TH.

	1853.	1854.	1855.
Dry goods	$79,192,513	$92,389,627	$62.918,443
General merchandise	87,198,002	98,684,877	91,587,083
Total imports	$166,390,515	191,074,504	154,505,526

Compared with last year the imports of dry goods have fallen off $29,471,184, while the imports of all other descriptions of merchandise have fallen off only $7,097,794.

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK FOR SIX MONTHS, FROM JANUARY 1ST.—Entered for consumption.

	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.
Manufactures of wood	$5,277,654	$10,815,972	$8,748,853	$5,181,553
Manufactures of cotton	4,626,052	7,621,801	8,489,125	3,660,275
Manufactures of silk	9,168,466	15,854,541	13,540,260	7,798,851
Manufactures of flax	2,935,404	4,199,560	3,713,007	2,221,598
Miscellaneous dry goods	1,961,860	2,786,750	2,798,969	2,118,642
Total	23,969,436	41,278,624	37,290,214	20,983,916

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR SIX MONTHS FROM JANUARY 1ST.

	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.
Domestic produce	$22,145,821	25,422,790	31,197,410	26,337,424
Foreign merchandise [free]	521,119	697,477	732,815	3,103,557
Foreign merchandise [dutiable]	2,419,575	2,040,980	2,384,679	2,969,852
Specie	12,624,009	8,654,982	16,185,867	17,074,795
Total exports	37,710,624	36,815,729	50,500,801	49,505,628
Total, exclusive of specie	25,086,615	28,160,747	34,314,934	32,436,833

Turning now to the exports for the fiscal year just ended, we find the total, exclusive of specie, only $19,967,249 less than the very large total shipped during the year ending June 30th, 1854; $12,822,094 more than for the year ending June 30, 1853; and $18,136,251 more than for the year ending 30th June, 1852. The exports of specie have been larger than in either of the previous years.

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30.

	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.
Domestic produce	$38,853,757	43,993,250	66,316,738	52,602,406
Foreign merchandise [free]	871,687	1,058,209	1,339,973	4,084,387
Foreign merchan. [dutiable]	4,161,885	4,450,027	5,634,818	5,636,781
Specie	37,273,703	21,127,228	34,284,241	38,058,334
Total exports	$81,461,032	70,628,714	107,575,070	100,281,914
Total excl. of specie	44,187,329	49,501,486	73,290,829	62,323,580

To sum up, then, we find that while the imports for the last fiscal year, as compared with the one just previous, have declined $36,568,978, the total exports have declined only $7,193,156, while the specie shipments have increased only $3,774,093. This showing is far different from what which many predicted, and proves that this trade will regulate itself if political economists will have a little patience. We annex a recapitulative summary to show at a glance the several totals for the year:—

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS AT NEW YORK.

Year ending June 30.	Exports of specie.	Total exports.	Total imports.
1855	$38,058,334	100,381,914	154,505,526
1854	34,284,241	107,575,070	191,074,504
Difference	$3,774,093	7,193,156	36,568,978

It will be a matter of interest to many of our readers to know the course of the trade throughout the year. For their gratifica-

tion we have compiled a table embracing the several months of the fiscal year, and showing the result of each month's imports and exports, as compared with the same month of the preceding year. From this it will be seen that the decline in imports began in September, and, with a single unimportant exception, continued to the close; while the decline in exports, exclusive of specie, was greatest from September to December.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS FOR THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1855, COMPARED WITH THE SAME FOR THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1854.

	EXPORTS EXCLUSIVE OF SPECIE.		TOTAL IMPORTS.	
	Increase.	Decrease.	Increase.	Decrease.
July	....	$1,390,871	$149,843	....
August	$258,786	....	2,890,359	....
September	....	1,851,589	....	$3,025,816
October	....	1,125,813	.... ..	1,151,887
November	....	3,177,617	.. ..	3,953,085
December	....	1,796,044	....	4,612,446
January	50,722	....	.. ..	6,661,992
February	....	1,393,006	985,902	.. ..
March	304,666	....	....	6,384,017
April	....	231,201	....	7,476,423
May	....	624,437	....	5,535,195
June	9,155	....	....	1,794,221
	623,329	11,590,578	4,026,104	40,595,082
	....	623,329	....	4,026,104
Total decrease	....	10,967,249	....	36,568,978

The cash revenue at the same port for June (exclusive of penal duties and hospital money) shows a slight decline compared with June of last year, but a greater falling off from the receipts for June, 1853. The total received for cash duties for the last six months is $5,438,015 05 less than for the corresponding period of last year, $6,867,383 79 less than for the same time in 1853, and $49,632 83 more than for the same time in 1852. The total for the fiscal year ending June 30, is $8,999,984 06 less than for the previous year, $5,590,881 49 less than for the year ending June 30, 1853, and $3,979,962 67 more than for the year ending June 30, 1852. We connex a comparison for each term specified:

CASH DUTIES RECEIVED AT NEW YORK.

	1852.	1853.	1854	1855.
In June	$2,232,680 23	3,840,723 33	2,452,606 83	2,316,464 80
Previous 5 months	12,017,632 65	17,326,606 17	17,285,353 93	11,983,480 91
Total 6 months	14,250,312 88	21,167,329 50	19,737,960 76	141299,945 71
Total fiscal year	28,678,910 36	38,249,754 43	41,658,857 09	32,658,873 03

The receipts for customs at Boston show a less comparative decline, as the steamers arriving there this season have brought larger freights, owing to the change in the line to New York. We look for no important increase in imports over last year until after the close of August; from that time to the end of the year we anticipate a large comparative increase in the receipts of foreign mer-

chandise. We annex a comparative statement, showing the imports at New Orleans during the last fiscal year:

IMPORTS OF MERCHANDISE AND BULLION AT THE PORT OF NEW ORLEANS FOR THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUN 30, 1855.

	Dutiable.	Free.	Bul. & specie.
July, 1854	$197,297	$57,859	$85,587
August	306,416	15,727	40,270
September	675,961	160,356	28,014
October	761,347	126,918	35,926
November	935,553	330,052	43,215
December	735,764	818,400	93,849
January, 1855	686,784	579,736	83,159
February	428,941	532,687	126,461
March	672,219	483,419	830,880
April	572,473	359,515	90,721
May	495,944	419,690	43,487
June	471,296	402,781	133,928
	$6,939,002	$4,297,170	$1,687,436
Dutiable	.....	.....	6,939,002
Free	.....	.....	4,297,170

For the past three fiscal years ending June 30, the following is a comparative statement:

IMPORTS OF MERCHANDISE AT THE CUSTOM-HOUSE, NEW ORLEANS.

	1853.	1854.	1855.
Dutiable	$8,019,029	$8,272,449	$6,939,002
Free	4,272,252	3,876,578	4,297,170
Bullion and specie	1,362,832	2,253,128	1,687,436
	$13,654,113	$14,402,155	$12,923,608

MONTHLY RECEIPTS OF CASH DUTIES AT NEW ORLEANS FOR THE YEARS

1854.		1855.	
July	$62,231	January	$213,666
August	100,796	February	130,801
September	199,896	March	202,916
October	219,724	April	171,147
November	219,342	May	156,239
December	283,122	June	146,340
	$1,106,981		$1,021,109
			1,106,981
			$2,128,690
		Am't rec. f. fis. year	2,558,647
		Decrease or falling off	$430,557

The annexed statement will show the amount received for duties at the custom-house at Philadelphia, for the month of June, and for the first six months of the current year, compared with the corresponding periods in the two previous years:

	1853.	1854.	1855.
June	$628,503 90	$304,754 75	$249,445 20
Previous 5 months	1,831,651 65	2,088,619 12	1,403,082 85
Total 6 months	$2,460,155 55	2,393,378 87	1,662,528 05

We also annex a summary, showing the comparative revenue, &c., at Boston:

Revenue collected at Boston for the month ending June 30, 1855	$505,961 03
Collected for the month of June, 1854	668,104 07
Decrease	157,233 04
Collected for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1854.	8,342,289 06
Collected for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1855.	7,616,568 78
Decrease	725,720 28
Collected from January 1 to June 30, 1854	4,344,753 39
Collected from January 1 to June 30, 1855	3,706,848 85
Decrease	637,904 54
Foreign arrivals from January 1 to June 30, 1854	1,213
Foreign arrivals from January 1 to June 30, 1855	1,285
Increase	72

It will be seen that the foreign arrivals from January 1 to June 30, 1855, exceed the arrivals for the same period in 1854, 72; while the revenue for the same time is $637,904 54 less than it was in 1854.

The keeping up of the exports at New York, nothwithstanding the large falling off in the shipments of breadstuffs, has excited general surprise. The following comparative summary of the shipments of the leading articles of domestic produce for the last six and a half months will be found highly interesting:

EXPORTS OF CERTAIN ARTICLES OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE FROM N. YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS FROM JANUARY 1ST TO JULY 16TH:

	1854.	1855.
Ashes—pots ....bbls.	4,828	5,627
pearls	463	1,618
Beeswax....lbs.	134,654	112,086
Breadstuffs—Wheat flour....bbls.	657,397	226,198
Rye flour	9,986	13,818
Corn meal....	48,187	33,217
Wheat ....bush.	1,380,409	31,288

	1854.	1855.
Rye	315,158	5,139
Oats	15,359	12,111
Corn	2,410,796	3,304,293
Candles—mold.....boxes	31,727	31,748
sperm	3,674	7,483
Coal.....tons	15,131	4,006
Cotton.....bales	192,330	153,756
Hay	2,821	3,584
Hops	481	7,640
Naval stores.....bbls.	361,680	392,302
Oils—whale.....galls.	109,422	92,068
sperm	234,870	473,842
lard	17,154	32,056
linseed	2,053	6,079
Provisions—Pork.....bbls.	54,864	112,880
Beef	40,856	47,619
Cut meats.....lbs.	13,148,961	14,658,452
Butter	1,316,825	367,871
Cheese	1,168,441	1,451,736
Lard	8,321,190	5,202,481
Rice.....tres.	16,470	10,818
Tallow.....lbs.	2,449,005	1,098,825
Tobacco, crude .....pkgs.	23,697	19,324
Do. manufactured .....lbs.	1,512,735	2,622,582
Whalebone	787,470	1,047,730

The foregoing shows that the exports of wheat flour have declined two-thirds and the shipments of wheat, which for the same time last year reached nearly a million and a half of bushels, have almost totally ceased. The clearances of Indian corn have been nearly the same. Cotton has fallen off, while the shipments of many descriptions of provisions have largely increased. There can be little question but what Great Britain will need large supplies of breadstuffs during the coming year, even though her own crops should prove a full average; so that we may reckon not only on large sales of produce for export, but also on a large carrying trade for our vessels. The shipping interests have suffered very much during the last year, and many have found no employment for their vessels which paid for more than the expense of maintenance and repairs. A brisk demand for our produce would revive this drooping trade and put new life in naval affairs.

DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRY.

In commencing the publication of a series of articles on the manufactures of St. Louis, we desire to remark that we do not enter upon this labor with the design of puffing either the city or individuals: our chief object is to ascertain for the benefit of producers and consumers, at home and abroad, the capacity of St. Louis to purchase from the former and to supply the latter. It is not to be expected that facts can be ascertained with perfect accuracy in respect to any branch of industry; but we trust that by the exercise of proper diligence, we shall attain a degree of correctness that may be relied upon for all practical purposes. The plan we have in view involves much labor and expense, and as it embraces every branch of industry in St. Louis, will require many months for its completion. In the meantime we respectfully request individuals engaged in the respective branches of manufacturing to furnish us with facts relating to the nature and extent of their business.

That we may give additional value to the statistics relating to manufactures, it is our design to notice the sources whence the raw material is obtained, and also the markets to which the fabrics are sent for consumption.

HEMP.

CULTURE OF HEMP IN MISSOURI — NEW POWER HEMP BREAK — MANUFACTURE OF BAGGING AND BALING ROPE IN ST. LOUIS.

Hemp, in some form or other, enters into the commerce of every part of the country, and although the climate and soil of a considerable part of the United States are favorable to its growth, yet its production has been monopolized by Kentucky and Missouri. According to the census of 1850, the crop of 1849 amounted to 34,871 tons: of this Kentucky produced 17,787 and Missouri 16,028 tons, all the other States producing only 1,056 tons. We are not in possession of facts showing whether the culture has increased or declined in Kentucky since 1849, but we imagine it has remained nearly stationary. If we are correct on this point, we think it probable that Missouri is now a larger producer than Kentucky. According to the Harbor Master's books, the quantity received at St. Louis by the river, in 1850, [the crop of 1849,] was 62,798 bales, and in 1854, 67,599, being an increase of 4801 bales, or

about 960 tons. Since 1849 there has been a considerable increase in the manufacture of rope in the interior; and if we add 1000 tons for this increase in 1854 above the quantity manufactured in 1850, it will make the grop grown in 1853 about 18,000 tons. This, however, is a small increase compared to that which would take place in Missouri were there greater inducements for extending the culture. But until the cost of preparing the fibre for market is considerably reduced, the culture of hemp will only be extended by very slow degrees. It may be regarded as a settled point that the non-slaveholding States will not grow hemp, nor is it probable that any of the slaveholding States, south of Kentucky and Missouri, will ever cultivate it as a staple. It was introduced some twenty years ago into Tennessee, but after the experience of several years by individuals of ample means on the best lands it was abandoned. In Kentucky and Missouri the culture of hemp is in the hands of the more wealthy class of farmers, who being familiar with the nature of the demand, are cautious in extending their crops, and are generally in a condition in case the price declines below a remunerating point to withhold their produce from market. Hence until improvements are made in the facilities of producing, there is little prospect that the consumption will be increased by reason of lower prices. But could the cost of producing be reduced to a point that would exclude the gunny cloth of India, and enable the American grower to compete with the Russian in the English market, the culture might and would be increased many-fold in a few years. And owing to the causes to which we have referred, in connexion with the great extent of soil adapted to hemp growing in Missouri she would produce and control a commercial staple which of itself, to say nothing of her other resources, would make her one of the richest agricultural States in the Union.

Appreciating as we do the importance of reducing the cost of preparing hemp for market, we are much gratified that a machine for breaking has recently been invented, which promises to do all perhaps that could be desired in that department of the business. We have seen this machine in operation, and conclude that when fairly tested, the following account of its capacity and practical results will be fully verified. We copy from the "Missouri Democrat" of 8th ultimo.

A NEW POWER HEMP BREAK

Invented by S. A. CLEMENS.

The entire hemp crop of this country is still broken and prepared for market by hand labor.

The labor is severe and the average day's work in favorable weather is about one cwt.

In wet or damp weather hemp cannot be broken by the hand break, and the average during the entire breaking season does not exceed 50 lbs. per hand each day.

Most of the hemp brought to this market is not only poorly cleaned, but is overrotted by too long exposure to the weather, to facilitate the operation of hand breaking.

The present limit of the hemp crop of Missouri is the manual labor which can be applied to breaking by hand.

A given force of farm laborers can raise and handle at least double the quantity of hemp which they can break by hand in the course of the season usually devoted to this work.

Previous attempts to produce a good power hemp break have been almost without number, but have failed in their object.

The new break in operation at Whitly's brass foundry on North Main street, was made in St. Louis. Its working principle is new and entirely simple and safe. The main feature is a most effective breaking and whipping action combined in one vibrating member of the machine. The hemp stalks are spread in successive layers of large handfulls upon a feed apron at one end of the machine, and the layers of fibre are delivered at the other end. Hemp stalks however tangled, can be passed through the machine, but it spreads better and comes through straighter when the stalks are kept straight and even. Hands of the shortest hemp are not elongated in passing through the break, thus avoiding an objection when the hand break is used.

An inferior quality of hemp barely five feet in length, is broken by the machine at a rate exceeding one ton in ten hours. With long good hemp the quantity can be increased to one and a half tons per day. By the testimony of leading manufacturers in St. Louis, hemp is better cleaned by this machine than seven-eighths of the article sent to this market. It most favorably works hemp which is less rotted than is required for hand breaking. The article thus produced, has a stronger fibre, and makes less tow on the heckle. Three workmen are necessary to attend the machine. It is portable, and may be driven by a small portable engine, for which the shives of the broken stalks furnish a surplus of fuel, or a horse power may be used of the description employed to drive the large common threshing machines.

A proprietary company is in preliminary formation for the introduction of the new break extensively in Missouri.

By its general adoption the yearly product of hemp will be only

limited by the quantity which can be cultivated, gathered and rotted. This will at once double the aggregate production. The importance of such a result is thought to be equal to the promise of any R. R., or other current project.

In verification of the foregoing, S. A. Clemens, the inventor, refers to John L. Blaine, J. T. Douglass, Edward Wyman, James E. Yeatman, U. Rasin and J. H. Alexander, Esqrs. of St. Louis.

The introduction of machinery for manufacturing hempen fabrics in St. Louis is of very recent date. The manufacture of cotton bagging commenced in 1853, and of baling rope in 1854. There are now four establishments in the city which are operated by steam. Two of these make cotton bagging, and all make baling rope, and dress hemp for other markets.

We have conversed with either the proprietors or managers of all these establishments, and from the information obtained we conclude that in the aggregate they are capable of consuming and dressing about 11,000 tons of raw hemp per annum. Of this about 2,000 tons is wrought into cotton bagging; and about 4,700 tons into baling rope. There are also six rope walks in the city which consume about 300 tons of raw hemp per annum, which is wrought into baling rope, twine and various other descriptions of cordage.

According to the Harbor Master's books, there was received at St. Louis in 1854, 35,817 coils of rope, which reduced to raw hemp would be equal to about 2,000 tons. There was also received at this port during the same period 2795 pieces of bagging. Thus it will be seen that the machinery and rope walks in the city of St. Louis, and in the interior of the State, are capable of consuming annually about 7000 tons of raw hemp in the manufacture of baling rope; weighing after deducting 12½ per cent. wastage in manufacturing 13,720,000 pounds. This, allowing 8 pounds of rope to the bale, is sufficient to bind 1,715,000 bales of cotton, amounting to more than one half of the crop of the United States. But there is reason to conclude that the capacity of manufacturing rope in the interior is even greater than the foregoing estimates would indicate. For by reference to the statistics of Lexington, we find that there were three extensive hemp factories in operation at that place in 1854, two operated by steam and one by horse power. Rope is also manufactured at Glasgow, Liberty, Rocheport, and Miami, and we feel persuaded from the facts which we have been able to collect from these points, that the 35,817 coils of rope received at St. Louis in 1854 do not fully represent the manufactur-

ing capacity of the interior, and that we should not be far from the truth were we to add 1000 tons to the foregoing estimate. The manufacturing capacity of Missouri will then represent the annual consumption of about 8,000 tons of raw hemp in baling rope, and 2,000 tons in cotton bagging, and about 5,000 tons of hackled or dressed hemp. Leaving about from 3,000 to 4,000 tons of raw hemp for exportation. But a large portion of this power has but very recently been put in operation, and hence we are unable to state the results of the current year We may also observe that these are only estimates of capacity, and not of actual products, which owing to a vatiety of causes, are rarely if ever equal to the means of producing.

It is obviously the true policy of Missouri to convert into fabrics or dress all the hemp produced in the State, and we rejoice that such a vigorous movement has been made in that direction. For besides giving employment to our people, and retaining the profits of manufacturing at home, it will be the best means which we can at present command of extending the commercial relations between St. Louis and the Southern States.

[From the United States Mining Journal.]

On the Manufacture of Steel as carried on in Great Britain and other Countries.

By Charles Sanderson.

At a meeting of the Society of Arts, held at Sheffield, G. B., on the 9th of May, the following highly important paper "on the manufacture of steel" was read by Mr. Charles Sanderson.

We direct particular attention to this valuable communication, in which the extensive practical experience of Mr. CHARLES SANDERSON on this branch of industry was illustrated by much study and research. Mr. SANDERSON, in addition to being a large steel manufacturer and patentee, may be said to have acquired an European reputation; he is a member of the Imperial and Royal Society at Vienna, having been proposed by the Archduke JOHN of AUSTRIA. He is, besides, a member of the Society of Arts, Manufactures and Commerce of France, and also of the Geological, Geographical and Statistical Societies of Paris, from which latter institution he received a medal of honor. An essay from such an eminent source, on a subject of such general interest, must command very marked notice.

The discussion which followed the reading of the paper elicited much useful information.

In answer to an inquiry whether Mr. SANDERSON had used peat charcoal in the manufacture of steal, that gentleman replied that he had employed peat charcoal in the manufacture of iron in the common charcoal refinery, and that he had made a ton of iron of good quality, and with less fuel than when wood charcoal was used. He intimated a very strong opinion that compressed peat may be successfully employed in the making of superior iron, and peat charcoal in the manufacture of superior steel.

Mr. SEIMENS stated that he had seen at the work-shops of Mr. F. CRUPP, of Eisen, in Westphalia, steel applied in large bulks to the various parts of machinery, such as railway axles and railway tyres, the latter being formed of cast steel in a very ingenious manner. A flat bar of steel was taken, two holes were bored in the ends of the bar, and by powerful machinery it was cut through from hole to hole. It was then opened out, and between rollers a perfect tyre was made, without a weld. He has seen one tyre which, after running 30,000 miles, presented scarcely any appearance of wear on its surface. Another application of steel was to railway axles and crank axles of locomotive engines, where again the metal was called upon to sustain a great amount of wear and tear. He thought in all these cases the very best metal ought to be used, which in the end would always be found cheapest the excessive value of the steel being more than compensated by the greater load that can be put upon it, and by the much reduced wear and tear. Mr. CRUPP was known to the British public by the steel gun, and the large steel rollers for rolling mills, which were so favorably noticed at the Great Exhibition.

In reference to the same subject, Mr. DODDS stated that steeled surface tyres were patented several years ago by Mr. SYDNEY JESSOP, of Sheffield, and his plan carried internal evidence of its superiority over cast steel tyres, because steeled tyres had all the toughness of the iron, and were, consequently, more secure against accident, as the wearing parts were as deep as could be required. Mr. JESSUP'S tyres had been successfully tried, and would now be, doubtless, employed, as they could be manufactured at less cost. In conclusion, Mr. DODDS remarked on the beautiful effect of this process ; bars of cold short iron had been already made into long, short and partially fibrous iron, by regulating the carbon mixture and the heat.

The meeting terminated with a vote of thanks to Mr. SANDERSON for his admirable paper, which was carried by acclamation.

The manufacture of steel is of great antiquity, coeval, if not anterior, to that of iron; it was known to the Chaldeans, the Hebrews and the Greeks ; the processes they are said to have used, are detailed by Aristotle, Pliny and Plutarch, but they are so obscure and contradictory, that no reliance can be placed upon them. It

appears most probable that steel was, in the first instance, produced accidentally, whilst attempting to obtain iron. This question is, however, more curious than useful; I will, therefore, dismiss it, and turn to the subject before me. Steel is a carburet of iron, more or less freed from foreign matter; it can be produced by two processes, opposed to each other: the first, or earlier method, is by working pig-iron, which on an average contains four per cent. of carbon, in a suitable furnace, until the carbon it contains is reduced to that quantity required for steel, which is one per cent. The second method is to beat wrought-iron in bars (which contain little or no carbon,) in contact with some carbonaceous matter, until it has absorbed that quantity of carbon, which may be required for hard or soft steel purposes.

The various kinds of steel, which are now manufactured in this and other countries, are--

Natural, or Raw Steel, which is manufactured from crude iron as obtained from the blast furnace;

Cemented, or Converted Steel, which is produced by the carbonization of wrought-iron.

Cast Steel, which is obtained by the fusion of either natural or cemented steel, principally from the latter.

In the manufacture of steel, the quality of the iron, from which it is made, is of the first importance; it is absolutely necessary, that it should be free from earthy matter, silicate of the metal, sulphur, arsenic, &c. Any foreign matter contained in the iron, is very injurious for steel purposes, but the silicates are, in my opinion, the most deleterious, since they produce a red short quality, caused by their mechanical mixture with the carbonized molecules of the steel, and thus destroying the malleability of the mass. The mines of Danemora have, for many centuries, enjoyed the highest reputation for producing iron of the finest description for steel, and they alone should be used for producing the very best cast-steel; their high reputation and scarcity have combined in commanding for them a very high price.

The marks L. GL. OO. are made wholly from Danemora ores; the marks CF. W. B. Grid, and some others, receive only a portion of these ores mixed with others in their manufacture. Sweden produces also a large quantity of iron suitable for steel, but of inferior rank to the above; they are technically termed 2d and 3d marks. The ores from which the Swedish irons are produced, are almost wholly black oxides, usually containing from 50 to 60 per cent. of metal; they are very clean and pure, and might, if properly manufactured, produce finer iron than that generally obtained; their works are, in too many instances badly constructed, and the manufacture itself is so far from being perfect, that there is a great unnecessary waste in the manufacture of the pig-iron into bars, and also in the quantity of charcoal necessary to produce a

ton of iron; nevertheless, these commoner irons are sold for steel purposes. Recently some of the Swedish works have introduded our English charcoal refineries, and our mode of working, by which a sounder iron is obtained, and one free from adventitious matter. The price of L. is 36*l.*; GL. 33*l.*; OO. 33*l.*; CF. and W. 32*l.*; B. 30*l*; Grid and Stembuck 24*l.*; the iron called 2d marks vary in price, according to their intrinsic quality, from 25*l.* to 18*l.* The 3rd marks from the latter price as low as 15*l.* per ton. Russia sends also a large supply of iron for steel purposes, of which the marks Kb. and IOP3 form the mass, being from 6000 to 7000 tons annually. This iron is of good medium quality, and sells readily at from 17*l.* to 19*l.* per ton. It is manufactured in the Ural district of Russia, by the usual charcoal-refinery process. A part appears, however, to have been puddled, using wood for fuel. In 1830 it was a question whether a puddling furnace could be so constructed as to admit of the use of wood. Berzelius was of opinion that it could not. During my residence in Styria and Carinthia, in 1832, I erected a puddling furnace at the works of Mr. Rosthorn, in Wolfsberg, in which wood was used as a fuel. I experienced no difficulty in working it, and it produced very good iron, with a large economy of fuel when compared with the charcoal-refinery process. In this furnace I puddled 30 cwts. of charcoal iron in 24 hours. During this time I consumed 180 cubic ft. of wood, as usually measured in the forest, equal to about 1½ cord our measure. The blooms hammered very solid, and the waste 10 per cent. The furnace was a small one, and the fire-room much larger than that used for coal. Since this trial, several works have used the process, both in Sweden and Austria, but it has not become general. By this plan an excellent steel iron can be produced. Steel iron may also be produced direct from the rich ores of this and other countries. For this process Mr. Clay obtained the first patent; it was tried in Liverpool, but was unsuccessful, first, because he could not sufficiently deoxidize the ore, and subsequently, in its manufacture into malleable iron, he could not get rid of the earthy matter—this rendered his iron unfit for steel, as well as ordinary purposes. I obtained the next patent, in which I provided for a more ample deoxidation of the ore, and also for the separation of the earthy matter from the metallic—this iron made good steel. There exist a variety of causes why this process has not been worked, although perfect in itself; it is, however, now about to be adopted for the production of steel-iron from the rich ores of England, which, if properly manufactured, will produce an excellent steel. Since this important branch of manufacture is becoming daily of greater importance, every step towards the production of fine steel iron in the country should be encouraged, inasmuch as it makes our own resources available for our wants.

In the manufacture of common steel, particularly that for railway springs, a very large quantity of steel iron is produced from

English materials. Of this kind of iron not less than 15,000 tons are annually consumed in Sheffield for springs and common hardware. This iron is produced from the coke-made pig iron, by puddling, during which process substances are added, which, although not always the same, yet produce nearly similar effects.

Oxide of manganese, salt, sulphuric acid, and clay, mixed together, formed the patented substance of Dr. Schafhaeutl, by the addition of which into the puddling furnace the metal becomes freed in a great measure from the earthy matter contained in the crude iron, and a purer and denser iron is produced. It is well known that the process of puddling and rolling was the invention of Mr. Cort, of Gosport, it was introduced in 1784; before which period the charcoal finery alone was used. The invention opened a new and extensive field for the industry of the nation; coal became the medium of the manufacture of wrought-iron instead of charcoal; the process has expanded the production of this kingdom from 17,000 tons in 1740, to 3,000,000 tons in 1854. The facility with which malleable iron can be produced with coal has caused the erection of magnificent and colossal iron-werks, finding profiable occupation for a great number of men, and producing throughout the ramifications of its manufacture, and its subsequent uses, an amount of wealth almost incalculable. This is somewhat foreign to the subject, excepting that, by the use of this invention, the steel iron market is annually supplied with 15,000 tons so puddled; and to me it is a pleasure, as it is a pride, to bring forward to public notice the invention of a man which has produced such astonishing results in our works, our railways and steam navigation.

At present we are largely indebted to Sweden for our supply of suitable iron for the manufacture of steel.

The following is a statement of our importation since 1845:

1845	Tons 18,607	1850	Tons 28,096
1846	30,840	1851	35,467
1847	28,264	1852	23,817
1848	20,438	1853	23,540
1849	26,607	1854	24,436

With very trifling exceptions, the whole of this iron is used for steel. The above figures give an average importation for 10 years of 26,011 tons, to which we must add the importation from Russia and the steel now made in England. I, therefore, estimate the weight of steel manufactured in England at 40,000 to 50,000 tons annually.

The fuel used in England for the manufacture of steel is entirely coal and coke. Coal is used in the converting furnace for heating the cases which contain the bar iron during its process of cementation. In a properly constructed furnace one ton of good hard coal is consumed in the conversion of one ton of iron, thus representing a consumption of 40,000 to 50,000 tons p. annum for this purpose.

To be continued.

DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC IMPROVEMENT.

RAILROAD RECORD.

Pacific Railroad Mo. Open to Hermann.

The section of this work between Washington and Hermann—about 30 miles in length—was opened to the public on the 6th ult. The event was celebrated at Hermann by a large number of invited guests from St. Louis and other parts of the State. Daily trains are now running between St. Louis and Hermann, a distance of about 81 miles.

It is expected that the entire line to Jefferson City will be opened for travel in all next month, October.

North Missouri Railroad.

The section of this road between St. Louis and St. Charles was opened to the public for travel and business on the 20th ultimo.

New Orleans, Jackson and Great Northern Railroad.

We notice with much satisfaction, the energetic progress of that section of this great enterprise extending from Jackson to Canton. The iron rails for the entire road between those two points are already delivered at Vicksburg, and are in process of daily transshipment to this point over the Jackson and Vicksburg railway.

Messrs. Latimer, McKie & Co., the contractors for laying the rails have now an efficient force on the work, in charge of one of the most skillful track-layers in the South. They are now completing two miles per week or 8 miles per month, of this important link. Nothing can exceed the beauty or solidity of the track which is laid. A locomotive is already running on the finished portion; and by the first of November next, we expect to see our city in hourly connection with Canton. The freight and passenger traffic on this road will doubtless be large and highly remunerative.

The lower portion of the road from New Orleans to Jackson, is advancing with equal strides. Ninety-three miles are already finished and in operation. By the first of November or December next, it is confidently expected that twenty-one miles of the road above Osyka, on the State line, will be completed and in operation; thus making one hundred and nine miles of continuous railway from N. Orleans in the direction of Jackson. The business of the road is

daily increasing in importance and extent; and already pays a dividend of four per cent. on the cost of co· struction and equipment.

Under the able and successful management of Mr. Calhoun, the President of the company, and Mr. Hazelhurst, its Chief Engineer, the work goes bravely on. In twelve months, or at most before the first of January, 1857, with the liberal aid of the citizens of Mississippi, Canton and New Orleans may be in six hours safe and pleasant travel of each other. We hope no public spirited citizen of our State will turn a deaf ear to the eloquent appeals of the Hon. A. G. Brown, for material aid to this enterprise. As an investment of capital, it holds out the most certain prospects of an early and liberal return. Of the greatly improved facilities for business and travel, its completion to Jackson will afford, we need not speak. These must be apparent to any mind.—*Jackson Mississippian.*

Galveston and Red River Railroad.

Twenty-five miles of this road has been put under contract, and we are led to believe from publications on the subject, that the people of Texas are about to enter upon this great work in a spirit which will ensure success to the enterprise in a reasonable time.

The State has appropriated 10,240 acres to each mile of the road, and it would seem that there could be no doubt but that the work can be successfully prosecuted with so large a land capital to commence with, especially in a State where slave labor can be obtained for the purpose of preparing the road for the iron.

The Houston Telegraph, of July 18th, announced the arrival of the iron for a portion of the first section of this road, and adds that arrangements had been made for laying it down at an early day, and otherwise pushing the enterprise ahead as rapidly as possible.

The Galveston and Red River Railroad may be regarded as a part of our own system in Missouri, and we can but watch the movements of that company with great interest.

Medical Department of the University of the State of Missouri.

FACULTY.

JOHN S. MOORE, M. D., Professor of the Theory and Practice of Medicine and Pathology.

JOSEPH N. McDOWELL, M. D., Prof. of Surgery and Surgical Anatomy.

ABNER HOPTON, M. D., Prof. of Chemistry and Pharmacy.

JOHN BARNES, M. D., Prof. of Materia Medica, Therapeutics and Medical Botany.

JOHN T. HODGEN, M. D., Prof. of Anatomy—General and Special.

PAYTON SPENCE, M. D., Prof. of Physiology and Comparative Anatomy.

E. S. FRAZER, M. D., Prof. of Obstetrics and Diseases of Women and Children

JOSEPH N. McDOWELL, M. D., Prof. of Pathalogical Anatomy and Clinical Medicine.

I. DRAKE McDOWELL, M. D., Adjunct Professor of Surgery.

JOHN J. McDOWELL, M. D., Demonstrator of Anatomy.

CIRCULAR.*

The Medical Faculty of the UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF MISSOURI, in issuing their present Circular, congratulate the medical profession of the Mississippi Valley upon the great advantages and increasing facilities which the city of St. Louis presents to students of medicine, who are desirous of obtaining a practical and theoretical knowledge of the various departments of the profession.

The city of St. Louis, with its precincts, has a population of over one hundred and twenty thousand inhabitants, with the flattering prospect of a future increase exceeding that of any previous period of her existence. In addition to this permanent resident population, thousands of emigrants and others, yearly resort to St. Louis, from Europe, and all parts of our country. These, together with the resident poor of the city, keep our Hospitals filled, and our Dispensaries crowded with medical and surgical patients, of every grade and character—thus affording abundant and favorable opportunities for the investigation of disease, at the bedside, in all its varied aspects, equal, if not superior, to any other city west of the Alleghanies. The same causes productive of the hospital clinical facilities afford, also, an ample supply of anatomical material for the purposes of dissection.

The situation of St. Louis, on the western bank of the Mississippi river, between its head waters and its mouth, renders it easy of access from all the regions bordering on the Missouri and Mississippi rivers, and their tributaries, from Council Bluffs and Minnesota to the city of New Orleans.

The Chair of Obstetrics and Diseases of Women and Children, having become vacant since the last Session, by the resignation of Prof. ALLEN, the Faculty have the pleasure to announce that they have selected to fill that important department, Dr. E. S. FRAZER, of this city, whose extensive practical experience in that particular branch of the profession affords ample assurance that its duties will be executed with fidelity. It will also be seen that the Chair of Pathological Anatomy and Clinical Medicine, rendered vacant by the death of Prof. DEMING, is now filled by Prof. JOSEPH N. McDOWELL, who has long been known to the Profession as one of the ablest teachers in the West. Dr. I. DRAKE McDOWELL, a gentleman of talent, and of high attainments in the profession, has also, since the close of the last session, been appointed Adjunct Professor of Surgery.

The following special facilities for the acquisition of a thorough medical education are presented to the consideration of medical students by the Missouri University.

---

* It is gratifying to know that the medical institutions of St. Louis are steadily and surely advancing in public estimation. The founders of these institutions have had many difficulties to contend with, and are entitled to much credit for the energy and perseverance displayed in placing each upon a permanent foundation. By reference to the catalogue of the class for 1854—'55, we find it amounting to 103. This must be regarded as quite encouraging, when we take into view its age and the competition with which it has to contend.—SEN. ED.

HOSPITALS.

City Hospital.—In charge of Dr. Thomas Y. Banister, Resident Physician and Surgeon. This Institution, for the reception of destitute patients of both sexes, and of all ages, was built by the city authorities, in the year 1846, since which time, owing to the rapid increase in the population of the city, they have enlarged the building to more than double its original size. The present edifice is three stories and an attic in hight, 240 feet front, by 160 deep. It will accommodate between four and five hundred patients The recent addition to the old building contains a large and commodious amphitheater, constructed by the city authorities, at the suggestion of the Resident Physician and Surgeon, Dr. Banister. It will conveniently seat four hundred persons, and in its internal arrangement has been planned with special reference to the accommodation of the medical and surgical clinics at the Hospital. This truly noble Institution far surpasses any of a similar character in the West, not only on account of the magnificent scale on which it has been projected, but also on account of the liberal provision which has been made to enable the medical students of the West to profit by an actual inspection and practical investigation, at the bed-side, of the diseases of the Mississippi Valley.

The Marine Hospital.—In charge of Dr. Geo. Johnson, Resident Physician. The buildings of this institution will be completed in a few weeks, when it will at once go into operation. Ample provision has been made for the reception of several hundred patients. Through the kindness of Dr. Johnson, the Medical Class of the Missouri University will be admitted to the medical and surgical wards of this Hospital. The Medical Faculty feel assured that Dr. Banister, of the City Hospital, and Dr. Johnson, of the Marine Hospital. will do all in their power to promote the comfort of medical studentsdur ing their attendance on the clinics at the Hospitals, and to enable them to obtain the full benefit of the knowledge and experience which may be acquired in the wards of the Institutions which are in their charge. The Medical and Surgical Clinics at the Hospitals will be delivered by Prof. McDowell. Students are admitted to the wards of the Hospitals free of any extra charge.

CITY DISPENSARY.

In the charge of the Medical Faculty of the Missouri University. In the summer of 1852, the City Council of the city of St. Louis passed an ordinance making a liberal appropriation of money for the establishment and support of a Dispensary, to be connected with the Medical Department of the Missouri University. In the fall of the same year this Dispensary was first opened for the reception of patients in the College buildings. From that time to the present, the number of those who apply for medical aid has rapidly increased, and now amounts to between two and three thousand annually. Admittance to the clinics at the Dispensary, free of extra charge.

PRACTICAL ANATOMY.

The facilities for obtaining subjects in the city of St. Louis makes this a point peculiarly inviting to the medical student. The supply of dissecting materials has hitherto been even more than sufficient, and consequently the classes have been furnished with an abundance at a more moderate charge than in most of the schools of our country. The dissecting Room is under the charge of the Professor and Demonstrator of Anatomy. It is ample and commodious, having been constructed with especial reference to the health and comfort of the student.

The Demonstrator will be in attendance at the Dissecting Room every night, to see that the classes are supplied with subjects; to give the necessary instructions as to the proper mode of conducting a dissection, and to explain the relative and special anatomy of the parts as they are brought to view by the knife. No labor will be spared in enabling the student to use the scalpel to the full extent of his wishes, and to prosecute his labors with every possible advantage to himself. The demonstrations of the more important organs, such as the brain, heart, liver, &c., are usually conducted in the Amphitheatre; all the classes being previously notified to attend. By this arrangement, each student is made acquainted not only with what he himself has traced out, but also with what is exposed by the labors of others.

MUSEUM.

The Anatomical Museum consists of an extensive collection of preparations of the human body, both dry and wet, illustrative of the osseous, the muscular, and the nervous system; the viscera, the development of the fœtus, &c., &c. The

dry preparations of the vascular and nervous system are numerous, and of the most superior workmanship. The Museum of NATURAL HISTORY—an immense collection, the fruits of years of persevering toil and labor of its founder, Prof. J. N. McDOWELL—is worthy of the especial consideration of medical students generally, and particularly of those who are desirous of prosecuting any one or more of the collateral sciences connected with the study of Medicine. The Mineralogy, Geology, Zoology (both living and extinct,) the Antiquities, &c., of our country, are all abundantly illustrated.

REGULATIONS FOR THE TERMS OF LECTURES, ETC.

The regular Lectures at this Institution will be delivered in the city of Saint Louis. They will commence on the 1st of November, 1855, and will be continued until the 1st of March, 1856. From the 1st of October, the Anatomical Rooms will be opened, and will receive the personal attention of the Professor of Anatomy and the Demonstrator. During the month of October, Preliminary Lectures will be delivered at the College, by the Professors, on subjects connected with their respective departments, and daily clinics will be delivered at the Hospitals.

FEES.—For a Full Course of Lectures	$105
For the Diploma	20
For the admission to the Dissecting Rooms and the Demonstrations .	10
For Matriculation	5

Comfortable Boarding can be obtained within a short distance of the College for from two and a half to three dollars per week. Students and others desirous of further information, will please address the Dean of the Faculty.

The Pencil.—T. W. DODGE.

We have taken occasion, more than once, to speak of the FINE ARTS; and to urge upon our citizens the encouraging of them in our midst. Our sentiments, in regard to the Fine Arts, are, emphatically, in favor of their engouragement. Their tendency is to refine and ennoble the human mind; and to develop the better and kindlier feelings of the heart. For this, we would encourage them, and see them encouraged. And so, also, we are persuaded, would every one of our readers.

But all this is but preliminary to what we wish to say respecting Mr. T. W. DODGE, miniature painter, now among us. If not the first painter on ivory, in this country, Mr. DODGE may certainly be regarded second to none other. His likenesses are true to nature; and his pictures have that peculiar softness and delicacy of finish which evince great study and practice.

One of the best specimens of Mr. DODGE'S pencil, perhaps, is his likeness of Henry Clay; which may be seen at his rooms. This picture was taken three or four years, only, before the lamented statesman's death; and, although many likenesses had been taken of Mr. Clay, he is reported to have said, in reference to Mr. DODGES' painting of him, that *his* was the first that was not a caricature. This is, undeniably, high praise.

Many of our citizens have miniatures by Mr. DODGE'S pencil; and in no instance, have we heard of a failure on his part to give satisfaction. He has taken likenesses of the dead, from daguerreotypes and photographs; as well as of the living, from life.

Yielding to urgent requests, Mr. DODGE has, recently, colored crystalotypes. This he has done in a manner highly creditable to him as an artist. It will be observed—as might be expected from looking at his ivory pictures—that he brings out these likenesses admirably, and puts upon them a beautiful finish.

Next to a miniature on ivory, a colored photograph is perhaps the most desirable of likenesses; and, as Mr. DODGE will probably leave us in the fall, it would be well for those who cannot afford—or think they cannot afford—an ivory likeness, to call early on Mr. D. and get a colored crystalotype of themselves and friends. We should be pleased could Mr. DODGE be induced to remain with us as a permanent citizen, and hope his absence will be temporary.

A WORD TO OUR PATRONS.

Reference to the state of our accounts is painful to us, and must be disagreeable to our patrons, but the propriety of observing punctuality with publishers as well as with merchants and mechanics, is so obvious that we are persuaded that none of our subscribers can be offended by being reminded of their delinquency. There are accounts due to this office which have been standing for many years, some even from the commencement of the work, in 1848; and yet we doubt not but that the most, and perhaps all, of those individuals are punctual in their ordinary transactions. It is true that our subscribers generally pay promptly when called on by collectors, but did they know the cost of collecting these small dues, we do sincerely believe that many of them would blush at the injustice of withholding payment until waited upon by a collector.

It is our *desire* that no individual should subscribe to the Western Journal and Civilian who is not able to pay for it with perfect convenience, nor do we desire that any one should continue upon our list whenever he thinks the work is not worth its price.

We do not insist upon the cash system so far as to adopt the rule of cutting off subscribers in case payment is not promptly made, but we do insist that our patrons will afford us evidence of their appreciation of our labors by making remittances at their earliest convenience after their accounts are due.